CHIEF CONCERNS: IDENTIFYING THE PERSONAL AND WORK-RELATED FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH JOB SATISFACTION, BURNOUT, AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG POLICE CHIEFS

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by

Patrick Q. Brady

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my amazing parents, Donna and Jim Brady, my brother and sister-in-law, Daniel and Emily Brady, and my sister, Mary Brady. Thanks to my parents for the great genes and for working hard to allow me to have life-changing opportunities. Thanks to my hilarious brother and sisters for keeping me grounded and regularly reminding me that being a doctor is nothing special "…since I can only prescribe policies and not 'fun' prescriptions." This dissertation is also dedicated to law enforcement officers and their families. Your sacrifice and dedication to keeping communities safe does not go unnoticed.

ABSTRACT

Brady, Patrick Q., *Chief concerns: Identifying the personal and work-related factors associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions among police chiefs*. Doctor of Philosophy (Criminal Justice), May 2017, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas.

The President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing has identified officer safety and wellness as a key pillar to improving police practices. Yet in order to improve the health and wellness of officers, the issue needs to be relevant to key decision-makers: police chiefs. Existing literature on stress and policing, however, has focused primarily on frontline officers and midlevel managers. As a result, less is known about the factors shaping the well-being of police chiefs. This is problematic considering the demanding duties and responsibilities of police chiefs. Additionally, the wellbeing of police chiefs can have a substantial influence over the attitudes and behaviors of their subordinates.

The purpose of this study was two-fold. The first goal was to establish baseline estimates of job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intention among police chiefs. The second goal of the study was to identify and isolate the key personal, operational, and organizational characteristics associated with job satisfaction, burnout – both exhaustion and disengagement, and turnover intentions to explore the personal, operational, and organizational characteristics associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions among police chiefs.

Data were collected from 315 Texas police chiefs from varying types and sizes of police departments. Findings indicated that chiefs were, on average, relatively satisfied with their jobs and reported low to moderate levels of exhaustion, disengagement, and intentions to leave their department. Additionally, operational and organizational factors, such as work-family conflict and organizational commitment, accounted for more of the

variance in job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover than personal characteristics of police chiefs. Findings, policy implications, and avenues of future research are discussed.

KEY WORDS: Job satisfaction; Burnout; Turnover; Turnover intentions; Police chiefs; Police families

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CHAPTER **I**

INTRODUCTION

On November 6, 2014, a rousing video of former Milwaukee, Wisconsin Police Chief, Edward Flynn, went viral on YouTube.[1] The video depicts a press conference interview with Chief Flynn immediately following an intense Fire and Police Commission meeting regarding an officer-involved shooting of a mentally ill man - Dontre Hamilton - in October 2014. At one point during the interview, Chief Flynn becomes visibly angry and frustrated after being asked for a response to citizen complaints about his cellphone use during the meeting; an act to which some protesters perceived as disrespectful to the extant situation. Chief Flynn replied that he needed to take the call, as it involved information about a recent shooting of a five-year old girl who was killed in a drive by shooting. Chief Flynn continues to spout prevalence estimates related to the ongoing issues of homicides and violence committed by African American against other African Americans in their community. Chief Flynn states angrily:

> Now, they [protesters] know all about the last three people who have been killed by the Milwaukee Police Department in the course of the last several years. There's not one of them that can name one of the last three homicide victims we've had in this city…We are responsible for the things that we get wrong. We've arrested cops, we've fired cops and so on. But the fact is, the people here, some of them, who had the most to say, are absolutely MIA [missing in action] when it comes to the true threats facing this community. It's a gets a little

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1 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=T7MAO7McNKE

tiresome, and when you start getting yelled at for reading the updates on the kid who got shot, yeah, you take it personally, OK?

As of September 2016, the video has encompassed over 7.2 million views. The stress and frustration expressed by Chief Flynn is only one example of the ongoing pressures police chiefs experience on a regular basis in contemporary society.

Policing is an ever-changing profession that presents unique stressors and challenges to officers throughout the ranks. In recent times, the unprecedented attention on officer-involved shootings has led to increased scrutiny on policing in the United States. Within the past few years, the United States has seen peaceful protests quickly progress into levels of civil unrest that approach the intensity of the race-based riots of the 1960s and early 1990s (see Beklin & Strum, 2016; Karimi & Sutton, 2016). Tensions emanating from officer involved shootings and extrajudicial uses of force against minority citizens have fueled an influx of legislative efforts requiring officers to wear body-worn cameras (Urban Institute, 2016). Recent unprovoked and premeditated attacks against officers in New York City, Dallas, and Baton Rouge in 2016 have resulted in police departments adopting new measures to guard against future incidents (e.g., two-man patrols; see Jackman & Hermann, 2016).

Even more, police reforms to improve police legitimacy and police/community relationships have also been mandated by the federal government after findings from Department of Justice investigations revealed patterns of civil rights violations and racial discrimination in multiple police departments across the United States (Department of Justice, 2015; 2016; Moughty, 2011). In light of the growing challenges faced by contemporary law enforcement agencies, President Barak Obama's Presidential Task

Force on 21st Century Policing identified recommendations across six 'pillars' that are designed to reduce crime and enhance police legitimacy (President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015). One of the key areas to improving police practices falls within the sixth pillar - officer safety and wellness.

According to the report, efforts to improve officer safety and wellness are not only important among individual officers, but also for police agencies and the community as a whole. The success of any police department is not only dependent upon the quality and well-being of their officers, but the effectiveness and well-being of their administrators as well (Cordner, 2016; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001; Witham & Watson, 1983). To date, however, very few studies have examined factors associated with the well-being of police chiefs. This is surprising given their demanding roles and responsibilities (Witham & Watson, 1983), along with their traditionally short tenures (Fischer, 2009; Glensor & Peak, 1996; *Police Executive Survey*, 1998; Maguire, 1993). Previous studies have shown that turnover is primarily associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and organizational commitment (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Matz, Woo, & Kim, 2014; Mor Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001; Rubenstein, Eberly, Lee, & Mitchell, 2015). Thus, it can be difficult for police chiefs to effectively run a police department and meet the needs of others if they are struggling with their own physical and mental health. As a result, more information is needed to identify factors associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions among police chiefs.

This chapter focuses on the importance of studying police chief well-being. The chapter beings with a discussion regarding the roles and responsibilities of police chiefs,

followed by a review of the existing research on the consequences of stress among police officers as a whole. Moreover, this chapter will provide a brief overview of the factors associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover behaviors among police officers, along with the limitations in the research as it applies to police chiefs. Finally, the chapter concludes with a statement of the problem and a synopsis of the study design and research questions.

Background of the Problem

Police chiefs play an important and visible role in shaping the nature of policing in a community. During the Professional Era of American policing (1900-1960s; Kelling & Moore, 1989), the release of the Wickersham Commission's *Report on Lawlessness in Law Enforcement* in 1931 revolutionized the role of police administrators and their efforts to professionalize the policing industry (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931). Details of the ongoing corruption, police brutality, and abhorrent interrogation techniques used by police officers generated a shift in police administrative practices. Previously to the Professional Era, police chiefs enjoyed relatively little control over their organizations, as much of the power and decision-making aspects were carried out by politicians and police captains in neighborhood precincts (Walker & Katz, 2013). As reformers argued for increased police professionalism, the power and control shifted back to police chiefs. As a result, police chiefs were charged with addressing a multitude of internal and external problems, including - but not limited to - corruption, police brutality, hostile relationships between the police and the community, rising crime rates, and political pressures.

Over three quarters of a century later, the role of police chiefs in contemporary society continues to be demanding and stressful (Corner, 2016; Witham & Watson, 1983). Not only are police chiefs continuing to address similar issues to those that occurred during the Professional Era of American policing, they are also faced with addressing a host of contemporary policing issues, such as cybercrime, terrorism, extrajudicial uses of force, and officer involved shootings. “Police administration is an art and a science that demands quality credentials, solid experience and qualifications, advanced education, and community, organizational, personal, and political skills” (Rainguet & Dodge, 2001, p. 269). Police chiefs must ensure that their department runs efficiently and effectively while simultaneously balancing the needs of external sovereigns (e.g., the community, media, local government officials, police unions) and internal constituents (Cordner, 2016). Even more, police chiefs are responsible for managing budgets, addressing citizen complaints, and developing solutions to reduce crime.

According to Witham and Watson (1983), there are four primary roles which law enforcement executives (LEE) must fulfill in order to be effective: coordinator, manager of change, initiator of interactions, and diplomat-liaisons. Law enforcement executives must be managers of change and foster an environment that welcomes innovation and improvement. Executives must also act as community planners who coordinate and delegate tasks, while ensuring that each division within their organization is conducting themselves in a manner that aligns with the goals and missions of the department. Relatedly, effective LEEs must be outgoing and initiate interactions to develop professional partnerships with members of the community and key stakeholders. Finally,

as a diplomat-liaison, LEEs are essentially the spokesperson for their department and must make themselves readily available to meet the needs of external sovereigns. As a result, it is not uncommon for police chiefs to be the scapegoat for many of the issues that occur among their constituents (Pogrebin & Atkins, 1976). In the United States, police chiefs are generally appointed by city officials, such as the city manager, city council, or mayor. Thus, LEEs are required to navigate the complex political landscape and satiate the needs of political officials who largely control the length of their tenure (Li, 2016; Murdaugh, 2005).

Collectively, managing the various roles and responsibilities of a police chief can be stressful and demanding (Witham & Watson, 1983). Despite decades of research on the correlates and consequences of stress among front line officers and mid-level managers (Abdollahi, 2002; Allisey, Noblet, Lamontagne, & Houdmont, 2014; Barbour, Brough, & Gracia, 2009; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Burke, 1988; 1989; Burke & Mikkelsen, 2005; Cullen, Lemming, Link, & Wozniak, 1985; Dantzker, 1993; 1994; Dantzker, & Kubin, 1998; Dowler, 2005; Drew, Carless, & Thompson, 2008; Ercikti, Vito, Walsh, & Higgins, 2011; Gershon, Barocas, Canton, Li, & Vlahov, 2009; Haarr, 2005; Hall, Dollard, Tuckey, Winefield, & Thompson, 2010; Hartley, Violanti, Mnatsakanova, Andrew, & Burchfiel, 2013; Hawkins, 2001; Howard, Donofrio, & Boles, 2004; Hur, 2009; 2013; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Jaramillo, Nixon, & Sams, 2005; Johnson, 2012; Jones, Jones, & Prenzler, 2005; Kop, Euwema, & Schaufeli, 1999; Martinussen, Richardsen, & Burke, 2007; McCarty, Zhao, & Garland, 2007; Mumford, Taylor, & Kubu, 2015; Pole, Kulkarni, Bernstein, Kaufmann, 2001; Queirós, Kaiseler, & da Silva, 2013; Reece, 2011; Rhodes, 2014; Shane, 2010; Singh, & Nayak, 2015; Violanti & Aron,

1993; 1995; Violanti et al., 2013; Violanti et al., 2014; Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999), little is known about the factors that affect the professional quality of life among LEEs.

Stress and police work. Exploring the causes and consequences of personal, operational, and organizational stressors among police officers has been a popular area of empirical inquiry (Abdollahi, 2002; Gershon et al., 2009; Webster, 2013). Efforts to improve officer well-being is a vital area of empirical and practical importance, as policing is a challenging and overtly stressful occupation that encompasses a wide variety of physical, emotional, and psychological demands. Consequently, officers are regularly exposed to a diverse array of occupational stressors that may jeopardize their safety or that of their fellow officers (e.g., responding to domestic disturbances, engaging/arresting violent offenders, encountering crimes against children, working with the public, etc.) (Abdollahi, 2002; Brown & Campbell, 1994; Violanti & Aron, 1994; Webster, 2013). In addition, officers are expected to manage these work-related hazards while operating in an environment that poses additional obstacles in the form of organizational stressors. Organizational stressors include - but are not limited to - bureaucratic red-tape, inadequate supervision/administration, lack of resources, rotating shiftwork, and/or role conflict/ambiguity (Abdollahi, 2002; Webster, 2013).

As a result, the juxtaposition of stressors can have a tremendous impact on officers' personal and professional well-being. Decades of studies have found that officers with higher levels of actual and perceived stress are at an increased risk for a host of negative physical health problems (e.g., cardiovascular disease, gastrointestinal disorders; obesity, high blood pressure, and type II diabetes), psychological struggles (e.g., low self-esteem, anxiety, depression, suicidal thoughts and behaviors, burnout, and

posttraumatic stress disorder [PTSD]), and behavioral outcomes (e.g., interpersonal violence [IPV], aggression towards other officers; divorce; suicide) both on and off the clock (Abdollahi, 2002; Can & Hendy, 2014; Franke, Ramey, & Shelley, 2002; Gershon et al., 2009; Liberman et al., 2002; McCarty & Skogan, 2012; Mumford et al., 2015; Violanti, 2004; Webster, 2013).

These findings are problematic, as previous studies have shown that high levels of stress and poor health can be dangerous for officers and may impede their decision-making practices and performance levels during critical incidents (Arnetz, Nevedal, Lumley, Backman, & Lublin, 2009; Covey, Shucard, Violanti, Lee, & Shucard, 2013). While studies have shown that police work is no more stressful than other occupations (Kirkcaldy, Cooper, & Ruffalo, 1995), other studies have shown that the life expectancy rate of male police officers is significantly lower than that of males in the general U.S. population (Violanti et al., 2013). Moreover, high levels of stress have also been associated with lower job performance and satisfaction (Dowler, 2005; Shane, 2010), the adoption of maladaptive coping mechanisms (e.g., binge-drinking, lack of physical exercise/nutrition) (Gershon et al., 2009; Mumford et al., 2015), and increased levels of absenteeism, burnout, and turnover among officers (Jaramillo et al., 2005; McCarty & Skogan, 2012; Violanti et al., 2014).

Collectively, while there is a general consensus among scholars that policing is a stressful occupation (Webster, 2013), some scholars argue that stressors and variations in stress levels are relative to an officer's role, responsibilities, and experiences within the organization (Lane, Lating, Lowry, & Martino, 2010; Mumford et al., 2015; Van Patten & Burke, 2001). Indeed, much of the extant stress scholarship has focused on the

experiences of front line officers and mid-level managers (Gershon et al., 2009; Dowler, 2005; Webster, 2013), with a relative dearth of information on correlates and consequences of stress among criminal investigators (Miller, 2009; Sewell, 1994; Van Patten & Burke, 2001) and police chiefs.

Research with police chiefs. Compared to the volumes of research on rank-and-file officers, police chiefs are a relatively understudied police population. To date, studies of police chiefs have focused on career paths of police chiefs (Enter, 1986; Penegor & Peak, 1992), roles and responsibilities (Witham & Watson, 1983; Witham, 1985), the influence and priority of key sovereigns (Potts, 1980; Matusiak, 2016; Matusiak, King, & Maguire, 2016; Tunnell & Gaines, 1992); stress and anomia (Crank, Regoli, Hewitt, Culbertson, 1995; Hays, Regoli, Hewitt, 2007; Long & Yerington, 2006); leadership development and how leadership styles influence performance (Krimmel & Lindenmuth, 2001; Nicholson-Crotty & O'Toole, 2004; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2008); hiring requirements and preferences (Johnson, 2005; O'Leary, Resnick-Luetke, & Monk-Turner, 2011); and chief decision-making (Brinser & King, 2016). Notably absent from the scholarship are studies exploring correlates of job satisfaction and burnout among police chiefs. To this author's knowledge, there exists only one study of job satisfaction among police managers (Ercikti et al., 2011) and one study of burnout typologies among Canadian police managers (Loo, 2004). Yet no studies to date have examined these issues among top ranking police administrators specifically.

Turnover. Few studies have explored turnover intentions and actual turnover behavior among police chiefs (Balfe, 2015; Li, 2016; Rainguet, 1998; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001; Murdaugh, 2005). Turnover intent refers to the process by which an employee

contemplates, plans, or has a desire to leave their organization (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979). Conversely, actual turnover involves the cessation behavior where one's employment with an organization is terminated either voluntarily or involuntarily (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mobley et al., 1979). Turnover prevalence estimates of police chiefs in the United States have revealed that most leave their position after a relatively short tenure. Collectively, the literature has found that, on average, chief tenure is limited to less than six years (Fischer, 2009; Peak & Glensor, 1996; *Police Executive Survey*, 1998; Maguire, 1993). The most recent prevalence estimates have suggested that two-thirds of police chiefs leave their position within five years, while only 12% have served as police chief for more than 10 years (Fischer, 2009). Although there is no accepted value for an ideal tenure, two-thirds of role incumbents departing within five years certainly appears excessive.

Turnover among police chiefs can have grave implications for police departments. Not only can police chief turnover impede organizational effectiveness (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, Pierce, 2011), but it can also disrupt the efficiency, effectiveness, and quality of services received by community members (Orrick, 2008). Moreover, turnover can impact the motivations, morale, and stress levels of subordinate leaders from taking on additional responsibilities and workload demands from departing chiefs (Drew et al., 2008). Rainguet & Dodge (2001) noted that turnover can interfere with an organizations' missions and goals, along with disrupt ongoing initiatives implemented by previous police chiefs. Finally, turnover can produce a contagion or cumulative effect among officers, whereby the resignation of one officer may encourage other officers to leave the organization (Cawsey & Wedley, 1979).

Besides reasons for voluntary turnover (e.g., retirement, death, department/position transfers) research on the factors associated with involuntary police chief turnover is relatively scarce. Rainguet and Dodge (2001) conducted a qualitative study of 10 incumbent or former police chiefs in a single western state and identified several themes associated with police chief turnover: politics, health and family, stress, personnel issues, lack of support from city officials, and accepting another position. Other potential, albeit anecdotal, reasons can include corruption (see Georgia Bureau of Investigation, 2016; Wolf, 2016) and/or an ineffective leadership style (Rainguet, 1998). Murdaugh (2005) used a sample of 177 Florida police chiefs to examine the impact of social relationships with sovereigns on involuntary and coerced departures. Findings indicated that both involuntary and coerced turnover behaviors were influenced by poor social relationships, particularly with politicians, the media, and hiring authorities. Consistent with Murdaugh (2005), Li (2016) found that inadequate social relationships with sovereigns (e.g., politicians, community groups, the media) significantly influenced involuntary turnover among a sample of 168 police chiefs. Finally, Balfe (2015) examined the impact of demographic and personality characteristics on chief tenure. Using a sample of 99 police chiefs, Balfe (2015) found that chiefs with longer tenure had a weak inverse relationship with conscientiousness. More specifically, chiefs who served seven years or more with their department tended to be less organized, impulsive in their decision-making, and overall complacent with their work. Additionally, shorter tenure was also associated with chiefs with a higher level of education and longer tenure in law enforcement (Balfe, 2015). Moreover, these findings note that turnover can have positive outcomes for law enforcement agencies as well. Indeed, chiefs who have exhausted their

resources and continue to struggle with low job satisfaction and burnout may stifle creativity and effectiveness. As a result, turnover can help liberate the department from stagnate or ineffective leadership (Orrick, 2005; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). New leadership may help cultivate positive cultural changes and initiatives that allow for organizational growth and improvement, particularly in times when police departments are facing increased scrutiny (Rainguet & Dodge, 2001).

Collectively, while the extant scholarship on police chief turnover is scarce, the findings highlight the importance of chiefs maintaining positive relationships with external sovereigns. Notably absent from the literature are the individual and work-related factors associated with turnover. Meta-analytic studies of both criminal justice and non-criminal justice personnel have consistently found that turnover is influenced by low job satisfaction, burnout, and low organizational commitment (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Matz et al., 2014; Mor et al., 2001; Rubenstein et al., 2015). Indeed, in a recent meta-analysis of turnover in criminal justice agencies, job satisfaction and burnout were the second and fourth strongest predictors of turnover among law enforcement personnel (Matz et al., 2014). Thus, in order to understand the factors associated with police chief turnover, it is important to first assess the individual and work related factors associated with job satisfaction and burnout.

Job satisfaction. According to Loche (1979), job satisfaction is defined as "…a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1,304). Job satisfaction is an important work-related attitude to study among police chiefs, as previous studies have linked it to productivity, officer receptivity to change, absenteeism, burnout, organizational commitment, and turnover (Burke,

Shearer, Deszca, 1984; Bowling, 2007; Pelfrey, 2007; Cohen & Golan, 2007; Jaramillo et al., 2005; Matz et al., 2007). To this author's knowledge, however, no study to date has examined the personal and work-related factors associated with job satisfaction among police chiefs.

One relevant study used a sample of 136 police managers (e.g., sergeants, lieutenants, and captain/majors) representing 24 U.S. states (Ercikti, et al., 2011). Findings indicated that police managers who: (1) received regular feedback about their performance; (2) had lower seniority; and (3) were responsible for supervision in COMPSTAT programs had higher levels of job satisfaction. Previous studies have linked job satisfaction among police personnel to personal (e.g., education and tenure), operational (e.g., work-family conflict, job stress), and organizational correlates (e.g., collegial support and burnout) (Burke et al., 1984; Howard et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 1999; Jaramillo et al., 2005; Johnson, 2012).

Other studies have found that job satisfaction is significantly influenced by organizational rather than individual correlates (Zhao et al., 1999; Johnson, 2012). However, less is known about the major determinates of job satisfaction among police chiefs. Given that police chiefs are responsible for shaping the work environment, they may be able to manage organizational stressors more effectively than front-line officers or other constituents who are bound to policies and procedures within a para-military, bureaucratic structure. As a result, police chiefs may enjoy higher levels of job satisfaction than their subordinates due to their increased autonomy and discretional decision-making powers.

Burnout. Burnout is a chronic form of psychological strain that is increasingly common among professionals who have high levels of emotional interactions with the public (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Burnout is a common concern within the policing industry with some studies showing high rates of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment among police officers (Hawkins, 2001; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Moreover, high levels of burnout have been associated with a host of negative personal and organizational outcomes among police officers, including - but not limited to - work-family conflicts, insomnia, physical and psychological issues, suicidal ideation, increased use of force, reduced job performance, lower job satisfaction, and turnover intentions and actual turnover (Armon, Shirom, Shapira, & Melamed, 2008; Burke & Mikkelsen, 2008; Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Kop et al., 1999; Maslach et al., 2001; Matz et al., 2014; Mor Barak et al., 2001;)

While burnout has been a popular area of study within the policing literature, no study to date has examined the personal and work-related correlates of burnout among police chiefs. Loo (2004) used a sample of 135 Canadian police managers (sergeants and staff sergeants) to develop burnout types. Findings from a two stage cluster-analysis identified three police manager burnout types: well-adjusted, laissez-Faire, and distressed police managers. Overall, the majority of police managers (54.8%) were characterized as "well-adjusted" after scoring high on personal accomplishment and low on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Nearly a third of police managers (34.1%), however, were identified as "distressed" after scoring high on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and moderate to high on reduced personal accomplishment.

Similar to the findings on job satisfaction, burnout tends to manifest from organizational stressors (Gershon et al., 2009; Maslach et al., 2001. Nevertheless, previous studies have found that higher levels of burnout among police officers were consistently associated with personal (e.g., age, gender, prior military experience), operational (e.g., work-family conflict, family-work conflict, job stress), and organizational correlates (e.g., collegial support) (Hall et al., 2010; Hawkins, 2001; Ivie & Garland, 2011; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; McCarty & Skogan, 2012). The dearth of information on burnout among police chiefs, however, warrants further inquiry.

Problem Statement

The recent release of the President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing report has highlighted officer safety and wellness as a key component to improving police practices. Decades of research have identified the nature and detrimental effects of stress, job satisfaction, and burnout on the safety and wellness police officers. To date, however, much of the extant stress scholarship has targeted front-line officers or mid-level managers, with relatively little information on the unique stressors face by police chiefs (Ercikti, et al., 2011; Johnson, 2012; Loo, 2004; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001; Zhao et al., 1999). Indeed, what is currently known about job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover behaviors among police officers is largely based upon studies that are either outdated (Rainguet & Dodge, 2001), use sampling frames of front-line or midlevel managers (Ercikti et al., 2011; Johnson, 2012; Loo, 2004; Zhao et al., 1999), or are unpublished doctoral dissertations (Balfe, 2015; Li, 2016; Rainguet, 1998; Murdaugh, 2005). Additionally, previous studies have documented the negative effects of police work on families (Gershon et al., 2009; Karaffa et al., 2014), yet very few have examined the

impact of work-family conflict or family-work conflict, particularly among police chiefs. This study addresses these limitations and expands the literature by isolating the key factors that improve job satisfaction and reduce burnout and turnover intentions. Even more, no studies to date have identified the personal, operational, and organizational factors associated with job satisfaction, burnout, or turnover intentions among police chiefs.

Police administrators have an extremely demanding responsibility to ensure the efficiency and effectiveness of one of the most important municipal agencies in a community. Moreover, the dearth of empirical knowledge on police chiefs is alarming, considering recent studies have shown that police officers are at a heighted risk for a host of negative short- and long-term physical, psychological, and behavioral outcomes (Abdollahi, 2002; Can & Hendy, 2014; Franke et al., 2002; Gershon et al., 2009; Liberman et al., 2002; McCarty & Skogan, 2012; Mumford et al., 2015; Violanti, 2004; Webster, 2013). In order to improve the well-being of police chiefs, there is a critical need to identify and develop evidence-based policies and procedures to provide support and resources to police administrators.

The current study provides an opportunity to expand the literature and improve the health and wellness of police chiefs. The findings can help advance organizational efforts to improve officer retention and emotional survival, enhance organizational efforts to establish resiliency and wellness programs, and to reduce the risk of maladaptive coping mechanisms and other negative health-related outcomes that are increasingly prevalent among law enforcement officers (e.g., turnover, absenteeism, metabolic syndromes, and type II diabetes; Kuhns, Maguire, & Leach, 2015; Gershon et al., 2009).

As a result, healthy and resilient police chiefs may play a key role in improving the effectiveness of police services, enhancing interpersonal relationships with key sovereigns, and saving direct and indirect costs associated with officer turnover.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current study is two-fold. The first goal was to establish baseline estimates of job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intention among police administrators. The second goal of the study was to identify and isolate the key personal, operational, and organizational characteristics associated with job satisfaction, burnout – both exhaustion and disengagement, and turnover intentions. To date, few studies have examined the personal and work-related factors influencing these outcomes. A recent meta-analysis of correlates of turnover intention in criminal justice organizations, job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion were the second and fourth most significant predictors of turnover intentions among law enforcement officials, respectively (Matz et al., 2014). Thus, to better understand turnover intentions among police chiefs, it is important to first identify factors that increase job satisfaction and reduce burnout. Implications from the study should help build a connection among police chiefs to the importance of addressing health and well-being of not only themselves, but also among their constituents.

Research Questions

Data for the current study were collected as part of the Texas Chiefs of Police Panel Project (TCPPP), which involves an ongoing data collection effort with the Law Enforcement Management Institute of Texas (LEMIT) (King & Campbell, 2013). Data were collected from 316 Texas police chiefs from small, medium, and large municipal

police departments. To identify and isolate the factors associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions among police chiefs, the following questions guided this study.

Research Question #1: What personal, operational, and organizational factors increase job satisfaction among Texas police chiefs?

Research Question #2: What personal, operational, and organizational factors increase exhaustion among Texas police chiefs?

Research Question #3: What personal, operational, and organizational factors increase disengagement among Texas police chiefs?

Research Question #4: What personal, operational, and organizational factors increase turnover intentions among Texas police chiefs?

The subsequent chapter provides an overview of the literature on the personal and work-related correlates associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions. Chapter three outlines the research design, data source, conceptualizations and operationalizations of the dependent and independent variables, and the analytic strategy. Results are presented in chapter four, while chapter five outlines the overall findings, implications, and future avenues of research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Job Satisfaction

Policing is a career that can be both rewarding and distressful. Any given day, officers can be saving someone's life on one call and taking another's on the next. Decades of policing research has been dedicated to identifying the causes and consequences of stress, or whether policing is inherently stressful or more stressful than other occupations (Kirkcaldy et al., 1995; Violanti & Aron, 1993). Notably absent from the conversation are discussions about the aspects of policing that bring satisfaction to officers. Particularly in times of heighted controversy, understanding the underlying mechanisms of job satisfaction can not only help with officer retention, but also to boost officer moral and commitment to their profession by reminding them of aspects that bring them satisfaction with being a police officer (Allisey et al., 2014; Brough & Frame, 2004; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003). This sections begins with a discussion on conceptualizations and outcomes associated with job satisfaction, followed by an overview of the extant scholarship on the key personal and work-related correlates.

Defining Job Satisfaction

To date, a uniform definition of job satisfaction (JS) has not come to fruition. Locke (1976) defined JS as "…a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1,304). Others have defined the construct as "…simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (Spector, 1997, p. 2). Job satisfaction has been a popular area of study in the management and organizational psychology literatures. Spector (1997) claimed that "[job

satisfaction] is the most frequently studied variable in organizational behavioral research" (p. 1). Indeed, a recent key word search on "job satisfaction" from the PSYCINFO database in August, 2016 revealed over 37,000 articles and monographs, which is nearly six times more studies than the 6,000 reported using the same methodology in Jayaratne (1993). To date, however, only a handful of studies have explored JS among law enforcement personnel (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Dantzker & Kubin, 1998; Howard et al., 2004; Johnson, 2012; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Zhao, Thurman, & He, 1999). Most of which have focused primarily on JS among front-line officers, while some studies have used sampling frames of officers in specialized positions, such as school resource officers (Rhodes, 2014), community-oriented policing officers (Halsted, Bronley, & Cochran, 2000), conservation officers (Eliason, 2006), and midlevel police managers (Ercikti et al., 2011). Moreover, relatively little is known about the factors associated with JS among law enforcement executives.

Consequences of Low Job Satisfaction

The dearth of information on JS among law enforcement executives is particularly problematic, considering previous studies have shown that higher levels of JS can not only have a positive impact on work-related outcomes (Yang, Yen, & Chiang, 2012; Zhao et al., 1999), but also among officers' personal lives (Howard et al., 2004; Singh & Nayak, 2015). The extant scholarship has linked JS to recruitment and training strategies (Loo, 2004), worker productivity (Bowling, 2007; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), receptivity to change and supporting new policing innovations (Pelfrey, 2007), and absenteeism (Cohen & Golan, 2007).

More importantly, JS has also been significantly associated with organizational commitment and turnover behaviors (Jaramillo et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 1999; Matz et al., 2014). Using a sample of 150 Florida police officers from six different agencies, JS was found to be the strongest predictor of organizational commitment (Jaramillo et al., 2005). In a recent meta-analysis of 13 studies of turnover intentions in criminal justice organizations, low JS was ranked the second strongest predictor of turnover among law enforcement officers (Matz et al., 2014). Finally, previous studies have also found a direct negative relationship between work-family conflict (WFC) and JS (Howard et al., 2004; Singh & Nayak, 2015). In other words, officers with high JS have less work-related conflicts with their families.

It is important to note, however, that much of the current research on the correlates and consequences of JS among policing officials has been established using sampling frames of rank-and-file officers (Zhao et al., 1999). Previous management, psychological, and criminological studies have focused primarily on understanding how employee demographics relate to JS (Buckley & Petrunik, 1995; Jayaratne, 1993). Moreover, a smaller number of studies have expanded to assess how the work environment, in addition to employee demographics, influences employees' satisfaction with their occupation (Herzberg, 1968; Johnson, 2012; Regoli, Crank, & Culbertson, 1988; Zhao et al., 1999). Indeed, Johnson (2012) has noted that JS is a multifaceted construct that is shaped through the juxtaposition of individual, operational, and organizational characteristics. Thus, the next logical step to expanding the literature is to identify and isolate the individual, work-related, and organizational factors associated

with job satisfaction among law enforcement executives. A summary of the findings can be found in Table 1.

Table 1

Correlates and Directional Associations with Job Satisfaction, Burnout, and Turnover Intentions

	Job Satisfaction				Burnout					Turnover Intentions		
Personal Characteristics	(+)	(–)	ns		(+)	(–)	ns	Other		(+)	(–)	ns
Age		X	X			X					X	
Sex			X									X
Male					X[b]							
Female		X			X[c]					X		
Race			X				X					X
Non-White	X	X[a]								X[d]		
White					X							
Education	X	X	X		X	X	X			X	X	X
Married		X	X		X		X				X	X
Tenure		X			X	X		∩		X	X	X
Operational Characteristics												
Work-family conflict		X			X					X		
Family-Work conflict		X			X					X		
Job stress		X			X					X		
Organizational Characteristics												
Collegial support	X					X					X	X
Organizational commitment	X					X					X	
Organization size	X	X			X						X	X

[a] African Americans = lower job satisfaction
[b] Males = higher levels of depersonalization
[c] Females = Higher level of emotional exhaustion
[d] African Americans = increased turnover

Personal Characteristics

Studies exploring individual-level correlates of JS among police officers have focused primarily on the individual demographics of the employees, their personality characteristics, their career characteristics, and factors associated with their life outside of work (Howard et al., 2004; Johnson, 2012; Miller, Mire, & Kim, 2009; Singh & Nayak, 2015). Overall, the research has found individual-level correlates to have a minimal effect on JS (Zhao et al., 1999), with many studies showing inconsistent and weak associations

with JS (Belknap & Shelly, 1992; Buzawa, Austin, & Bannon, 1994; Dantzker, 1994; Dantzker & Kubin, 1998; Ercikti et al., 2011; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Johnson, 2012; Rhodes, 2015; Zhao et al., 1999). Officer characteristics commonly used in JS studies have included age, gender, race, ethnicity, education, tenure, and rank. This section describes findings related to the role of officer demographics and career characteristics on JS.

Age. The impact of an officer's age on JS has produced mixed findings, with some studies reporting younger officers to have higher levels of JS than older officers. In a study of 522 officers from 12 police departments in six states, Dantzker (1994) found that officers between the ages of 20 and 25 had the highest levels of JS than other age groups. Regarding police chiefs, however, age was not a significant predictor of JS (Ercikti et al., 2011).

Sex. Women constitute 50.8% of the total U.S. population (Howden & Meyer, 2011) and 47% of the U.S. workforce (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). However, only 12.2% of fulltime sworn law enforcement officers in local police departments are women - 3% of which are police chiefs (Reaves, 2015). Traditionally, policing has been a hypermasculine, male-dominated industry with women facing unique stressors that could potentially impact JS, including hiring discriminations, sexual harassment, and the 'glass ceiling' effect (National Research Council [NRC], 2004). To date, the literature has been mixed with some studies finding that female officers have lower levels of JS than their male counterparts (Belknap & Shelly, 1992; Buzawa et al., 1994; Dantzker, 1994). Conversely, other studies have found no significant differences in JS by gender (Dantzker & Kubin, 1998; Ercikti et al., 2011; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Johnson, 2012; Rhodes, 2015;

Zhao et al., 1999). In one of the only studies of JS among police chiefs, gender was not a significant predictor of JS (Ercikti et al., 2011).

Race and ethnicity. Research on officers' race and ethnicity has also produced mixed findings, with some studies showing that African American officers have lower (Buzawa et al., 1994) or higher levels of JS than white officers (Dantzker, 1994; Johnson, 2012). Other studies, however, have found no significant differences between race or ethnicity (Dantzker & Kubin, 1998; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Rhodes, 2015), particularly among police chiefs (Ercikti et al., 2011).

Education. More than ever before, the level of education among American police officers been an important component to the recruitment and hiring process (NRC, 2004; Reaves, 2015). As of 2013, 25% of local police departments require applicants to have at least a two-year college degree, which is nearly double the number of departments in 1993 (i.e., 16% of local police departments; Reaves, 2015). Research on the impact of education on JS, however, has been mixed. While some studies have reported education to not be a significant predictor of JS, other studies have found a positive (Dantzker, 1993) and negative associated between education and JS (Ercikti et al., 2011; Ingram & Lee, 2015).

Tenure. Tenure and rank are common career characteristics included in studies of officer job satisfaction (Buzawa et al., 1994; Dantzker & Kubin, 1998; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Johnson, 2012; Rhodes, 2015; Zhao et al., 1999). Years of experience, also known as tenure, has been the most consistent and strongest individual-level correlate of JS among police officers (Buzawa et al., 1994; Dantzker, 1993; Dantzker & Kubin, 1998; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Johnson, 2012; Rhodes, 2015; Zhao et al., 1999). Across studies,

findings have indicated a negative relationship between tenure and JS, suggesting that officers with more years of experiences have lower levels of JS.

Rank. Research on officer rank, however, has produced mixed findings. Using a sample of 199 officers from the Spokane Police Department in Spokane, Washington, Zhao et al. (1999) found that rank had a significant negative association with satisfaction with work, yet was not a significant predictor of officers' satisfaction with their supervisors or coworkers. Conversely, other studies have found that JS varies according to certain ranks (e.g., sergeants; Dantzker, 1994), or is not related to JS at all (Ercikti et al., 2011).

Overall, the extant scholarship regarding the impact of officer demographics on JS has produced mixed results. Findings related to officers' age, gender, level of education, and rank are fairly inconsistent, yet officers' years of experience has been identified as an important predictor of JS. The inconsistencies are not surprising considering that previous scholars have noted that officer demographics only accounted for a small proportion of the explained variance in JS (Johnson, 2012; Zhao et al., 1999). Indeed, Johnson (2012) found that the addition of job task characteristics into multivariate models increased the observed variance from 4% to 23% for JS, while the variance in Zhao et al.'s models (1999) increased from 6% to 49% with the inclusion of work-related variables. Collectively, this suggests that operational and organizational factors may play a larger role as a principal source of JS among police officers.

Work-Related Correlates of Job Satisfaction

Similar to the absurdity of eating a jelly sandwich sans peanut butter, scholars have argued the impracticality of studying the impact of employee demographics on JS

without exploring factors relating to the work environment as well (Hackman & Oldman, 1975; Herzberg, 1968; Johnson, 2012; Zhao et al., 1999). Herzberg (1968) was among the first scholars to establish a direct association between JS and the work environment. He argued that JS and job dissatisfaction are mutually exclusive constructs that emerge from different facets of the job. According to Herzberg (1968), JS is derived from factors that are intrinsic to one's roles and responsibilities, such as (a) the work itself; (b) the responsibilities one has been granted; (c) receiving recognition for one's contributions; and (d) opportunities for advancement and promotion. These factors are referred to as 'motivators' because they drive people to want to do their job effectively and attain personal and organizational goals. Conversely, common sources of dissatisfaction are called 'hygiene factors' and consist of (a) strict organizational policies; (b) inadequate supervision and leadership, (c) insufficient pay or salary, (d) work conditions, and/or (e) poor interpersonal relationships with supervisors and colleagues. Moreover, Herzberg (1968) argues that employee motivation and satisfaction can be enhanced through improvements in motivating factors and eliminating sources of dissatisfaction from hygiene factors.

Hackman and Oldman (1976) have presented a more complex model of understanding how job task characteristics are linked to employee motivation and satisfaction. They argue that there are five core job dimensions (e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback; Hackman & Oldman, 1975) that lead to three psychological states (e.g., "experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for the outcomes for the work, and knowledge of the results of the work activities," p. 255), which, in turn, produce positive individual and work-related

outcomes. The outcomes include increased internal motivation, job satisfaction, lower absenteeism, and turnover (Hackman & Oldman, 1976).

Zhao et al. (1999) was among the first to empirically test Herzberg's (1968) and Hackman and Oldman's (1976) theoretical models of job satisfaction among police officers. Overall, Zhao and colleagues found support for both theories and argued that (1) JS is intrinsic to one's roles and responsibilities in the work environment; and (2) Hackman and Oldman's (1975) core job dimensions are stronger predictors of general JS, satisfaction with supervisors, and satisfaction with coworkers, than officer demographics. More recently, Johnson (2012) used a sample of 292 officers from 11 different law enforcement agencies in Phoenix, Arizona and confirmed much of Zhao and colleagues' (1999) findings. Johnson (2012) conducted a multidimensional analysis of job satisfaction by exploring officers' demographics, job task characteristics, and organizational attributes. Findings have indicated that job task characteristics and organizational attributes have a greater effect on job satisfaction than officer demographics, particularly, job autonomy, role conflict, peer cohesion, and perceived organizational support. Collectively, work-related stressors can be compartmentalized into "job content" (i.e., operational) and "job context" (i.e., organizational) stressors (Shane, 2010). This section elaborates on additional findings related to the role of work-related correlates on JS.

Operational Characteristics

The management and organizational psychology literature has explored several operational factors and their association with JS. Operational factors refer to the inherent nature and processes involved in one's work-related responsibilities and can include

work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and job stress (Aziri, 2011; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Herzberg, 1976; Jayaratne, 1993).

Work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Police operate 24 hours a day, 365 days a year, which requires officers to work rotating shifts that often conflict with establishing family routines, and spending quality time with their families on holidays and special events (NRC, 2004). Studies exploring the nexus of police work and family life have identified a reciprocal relationship between JS and conflict in both the work and family domains (Howard et al., 2004; Singh & Nayak, 2015). According to Howard et al. (2004), "work-family conflict occurs when participation in the family role is made more difficult by participation in the work role" (p. 380). Using a sample of 119 officers from a southern state, Howard et al. (2004) found that increased work-family conflict (WFC) was significantly associated with lower overall job satisfaction, along with dissatisfaction with compensation, supervision, and collegial relationships. This is problematic considering that job stress has been found to be a mediator between WFC and job satisfaction (Singh & Nayak, 2015). In other words, increased WFC decreases overall levels of job satisfaction, which, in turn, increase job stress. Additionally, collegial support was found to moderate the relationship between WFC and JS (Singh & Nayak, 2015), suggesting that officers with strong collegial support are better able to manage their stress and maintain an appropriate level of satisfaction with their job.

Family-work conflict has received less attention in the managerial and policing literatures. Overall, while studies have shown that family-work conflict has a significant negative relationship with JS (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Netemeyer et al., 1996), scholars have argued that the relationship is much weaker than the relationship

between WFC and JS (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Boles and colleagues examined the impact of WFC and FWC on JS using a sample of 144 probation and parole officers in a large southeastern state and found that both WFC and FWC were significantly associated with JS. Moreover, the relationship between WFC and different facets of JS (e.g., satisfaction with work itself, promotion, colleagues and supervision) were stronger than the relationship between FWC and JS. However, the relationship between FWC and satisfaction with colleagues was more powerful than the relationship between WFC and satisfaction with colleagues.

Job stress. Job stress can be defined as "…the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, needs, or expectations of the work" (Stevens, 2008, p. 51). While stress is commonplace in the American workplace (Saad, 2012), regularly experiencing high levels of stress can lead to a host of negative personal and professional outcomes (Dowler, 2005; Shane, 2010). Indeed, not only has high stress been associated with decreased job performance and satisfaction among police officers (Ingram & Lee, 2015; Johnson, 2012), it can also influence the adoption of poor coping mechanisms (e.g., binge drinking, substance abuse; Gershon et al., 2009; Mumford et al., 2015), and increase absenteeism, burnout, and turnover among officers (Jaramillo et al., 2005; McCarty & Skogan, 2012; Violanti et al., 2014).

Collectively, the extant scholarship has shown that operational factors play an integral role in shaping JS. Unlike the extant scholarship on individual-level correlates of JS, findings have shown that, with the exception of job variety, operational characteristics have a more consistent directional relationship with JS (Ingram & Lee, 2015; Johnson,

2012; Rhodes, 2015; Violanti & Aron, 1993; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994; Zhao et al., 1999). Much of this research, however, has been conducted among front-line officers. Moreover, less is known about the degree to which operational correlates influence JS among law enforcement executives.

Organizational Characteristics

Organizational-level correlates, also known as 'job context' stressors consist of factors related to organizational policies, procedures, structure, colleagues, and/or management (Shane, 2010). Within the past few decades, police departments have been witness to significant reforms designed to increase officer accountability, improve relationships with the community, and enhance organizational effectiveness and efficiency (Weisburd & Braga, 2006). As a result, previous studies exploring these reforms have found that organizational-level factors can affect officers' attitudes and behaviors, including job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Regoli et al., 1988; Stevens, 2006). Organizational-level correlates of JS can include organizational size, collegial support, and organizational commitment (Ingram & Lee, 2015; Jayaratne, 1993 Johnson, 2012; Regoli et al., 1988; Zhao et al., 1999).

Organization size. While previous studies have identified similar organizational practices across small, medium, and large police departments (Meagher, 1985), others have noted differences in attitudinal and behavioral measures related to the size of an organization (Crank, Culbertson, Poole, & Regoli, 1987; Regoli et al., 1989). Johnson (2012) has hypothesized that organizational size should be positively associated with JS considering that larger organizations provide better fringe benefits and more

opportunities for specialization/promotion. Conversely, Crank et al. (1987) argued that JS may be lower in larger police departments due to increased stress emanating from the larger volume of decisions to be made. Moreover, research has been inconsistent, with some studies showing that organizational size is only indirectly linked to JS through intervening variables, such as organizational structure and employee needs and expectations (Beer, 1964). Other studies have shown that organizational size has a negative association with overall JS among police chiefs (Regoli et al., 1989), and different facets of JS among business executives, such as need fulfilment (Cummings & ElSalmi, 1970).

Collegial support. Through shared experiences, coworkers can provide information, mentoring, and affective and instrumental support that can create strong bonds of solidarity and motivation (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). The extant scholarship has identified collegial support as a vital component to the overall well-being and JS of police officers across the ranks (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan, & Schwartz, 2002; Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Johnson, 2012). Among a sample of 292 officers from 11 different law enforcement agency around Pheonix, Arizona, Johnson (2012) found that collegial support was positively associated with JS.

Barbour and colleagues (2009) used a sample of 397 Australian police officers and found that both coworker and supervisor support had a strong positive association with JS.

Scholars have hypothesized that collegial support improves JS by acting as a buffer to high job stress and/or unrewarding tasks or responsibilities (Schmeider & Smith, 1996). Using a nationally representative sample of 2,505 fill-time employees from

a wide variety of public and private organizations, however, Ducharme and Martin (2000) found that collegial support did not moderate the relationship between JS and unrewarding work. Indeed, both affective and instrumental coworker support had a direct relationship with JS. More specifically, professionals derive a greater sense of satisfaction with their occupation when they interact with coworkers who can provide tangible assistance with their work duties, along with a sense of validation and emotional support.

This finding is particularly important among law enforcement executives, where support from both internal (e.g., constituents) and external colleagues (e.g., city government officials, the media, and/or leaders within the community) is crucial to ensuring that their agency runs efficiently and effectively (Cordner, 2016; Witham & Watson, 1983). To date, however, empirical assessments of collegial support on JS among law enforcement executives has yet to be examined.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment (OC) is a multidimensional construct that refers to one's bond, loyalty, and/or attachment to the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Organizational commitment is characterized by three distinct, yet related dimensions including affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Affective commitment (AC) relates to the degree of one's emotional attachment to, identification with, and overall involvement with an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Continuance commitment (CC) refers to the perceived monetary (e.g., salary and benefits), social, and/or status-related (e.g., seniority, status) costs associated with leaving an organization,

while normative commitment (NC) involves a perceived obligation to stay within an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

Organizational commitment is one of the most often studied constructs in the management and organizational psychology literatures (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Rikketta, 2002). Moreover, the findings have produced salient implications at the individual and organization level. Indeed, meta-analytic studies have found a positive relationship between OC and overall job satisfaction, motivation, and job performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Riketta, 2002). Other meta-analyses have examined antecedents, correlates, and consequences associated with specific dimensions of OC. In a meta-analysis of 155 studies, Meyer and colleagues (2002) found that all three commitment dimensions were negatively associated with absenteeism, turnover intentions, and actual turnover (Meyer et al., 2002). Additionally, both AC and NC have been found to have a strong positive association with JS and a strong negative association with stress and work-family conflict (Meyer et al., 2002). Conversely, CC was found to have a negative association with JS, stress, and work-family conflict. Collectively, these findings underscore the importance of fostering OC within the organization.

Organizational commitment and its relationship to JS has been relatively understudied in the policing literature (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Jaramillo et al., 2005). Using a study of 150 officers from six Florida law enforcement agencies, Jaramillo and colleagues (2005) found that organizational commitment was strongly associated with JS. Little is known, however about the relationship between OC and JS among law enforcement executives. On one hand, holding a chief of police position may

be emblematic of their commitment to their organization. As a result, higher affective OC may help prevent avoidable turnover among police chiefs. On the other hand, higher continuance and/or normative commitment may influence ineffective police chiefs to remain in their position for the wrong reasons (e.g., status, monetary/retirement benefits). Moreover, future research assessing the multidimensional nature of OC among police administrators is warranted.

In sum, although much of the literature has been mixed, studies have identified important individual and work-related correlates of JS, such as work-family conflict, tenure, job demands, job stress, collegial support, and organizational commitment. While work-related factors have been found to have a strong influence on JS, it is important to not discount the role of individual factors, as the personal characteristics of LEEs may shape how officers cope and respond to the rigors of the position (Crank et al., 1995). To date, however, a multidimensional analysis of job satisfaction has not been conducted among law enforcement executives.

Burnout

The small but growing number of studies on JS among police officers is pertinent to improving our understanding of officer well-being. Given that JS is one of the strongest and most consistent predictors of turnover intentions and actual turnover (Allisey et al., 2014; Brough & Frame, 2004; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Matz et al., 2014; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubentein et al., 2015; Reece, 2011), additional research is needed to examine the personal and work-related correlates associated with various job-related attitudes and experiences. Police officers are required to address a wide variety of problems that require above average communication and

interpersonal skills, as well as discretion (NRC, 2004). Yet the ever changing nature of police work, coupled with the restrictive bureaucratic, authoritarian, paramilitary structure of police organizations can create frustration and emotional exhaustion among officers (Stevens, 2008). Over time, frustrations and stress can build and manifest into burnout, which, in turn, can lead to high turnover rates among officers (Mor Barak et al., 2001; Matz et al., 2014).

Police chiefs, however, enjoy unfettered autonomy and discretion, as their role involves establishing policies and procedures that shape the work environment (Cordner, 2016; Regoli et al., 1989; Witham & Watson, 1983). Moreover, even though their role is extremely demanding, police chiefs' control over the factors of the work environment that breed symptoms of burnout may lead to lower levels of burnout among police administrators. Surprisingly, however, no study to this authors knowledge has examined the causes and consequences of burnout among law enforcement executives. Thus, this sections begins with a discussion on conceptualizations, prevalence estimates, and consequences for burnout, followed by an overview of the extant scholarship on the key personal and work-related correlates among nonpolice personnel and front-line officers.

Defining Burnout

Despite popular misconceptions, the term 'burnout' is not a metaphor describing someone with a proclivity for marijuana and living in their parents' basement. Indeed, burnout was first coined by Herbert Freudenberger (1974) to describe the emotional exhaustion experienced by young volunteers at a free clinic for drug addicts in New York. Around the same time, the term was further defined and operationalized by Christina Maslach (1976) in her work as a social psychologist exploring coping

mechanisms among human service workers. Since then, the concept of burnout has received much attention among scholars and practitioners. Early definitions of burnout were characterized as state definitions, which involved a symptomatic approach to describing burnout (Schabracq, Winnubst, & Cooper, 2003). For example, one of the most commonly cited definitions of burnout comes from Maslach and Jackson (1986): "Burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do 'people work' of some kind" (p. 1).

According to Maslach and Jackson (1981), emotional exhaustion is the core component of burnout and refers to the depletion of energy and empathy that results from ongoing stress and inundation from personal and work-related demands. For example, given the recent prolific media attention on officer involved shootings in the U.S., law enforcement executives may be perceived as lacking empathy or patience with others as they attempt to balance the needs of the community and sovereigns, as well as the needs of their officers within their department (Shepard, 2014). Depersonalization involves feeling detached, having a decreased interest in one's work, and developing negative and cynical attitudes towards one occupation and/or others (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Officers suffering from depersonalization may become increasingly cynical towards citizens and dehumanize offenders who commit crimes. Reduced personal accomplishment involves a lack of professional efficacy where individuals feel they are not making a difference or their work-related contributions are not worthy (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). For example, police chiefs who suffer from reduced personal accomplishment may feel they lack the capacity to solve problems and may eventually

withdraw from community appearances and/or become less available to their constituents and sovereigns.

Scholars have since expanded the emotional exhaustion construct to include physical and mental exhaustion (Pines & Aronson, 1988). Initially, burnout was specific to helping professionals working with the public (Maslach & Jackson, 1986), yet the extant scholarship has shown that burnout is commonplace among a diverse array of professionals who experienced prolonged exposure to stressful work-related demands (Leiter & Schaufeli, 1996; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

Other scholars have suggested that state definitions are too narrow and do not encompass the dynamic process in which burnout manifests (Schabracq et al., 2003). Moreover, process definitions encompass burnout as a gradual process that develops through a series of stages (Cherniss, 1980). According to Cherniss (1980), burnout initially develops from stress resulting from a misfit between one's expectations and values versus the actual realities of an occupation. Second, as the result of this discrepancy, individuals begin to experience job strain, which involves fatigue and short-term emotional and physical exhaustion. Finally, burnout fully manifests when individuals experience a number of changes in their attitudes and behaviors, such as absenteeism, cynicism towards their clients and colleagues, and feelings of occupational inadequacy. Additionally, Etzion (1987) noted that the development of burnout is an insidious process that is often difficult for individuals to self-diagnose or become self-aware. Indeed, individuals suffering from burnout are often unaware they are experiencing the associated symptoms.

In sum, state and process definitions are not necessarily mutually exclusive, with state definitions describing the end result of the burnout process (Schabracq et al., 2003). Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) offered an overarching definition of burnout that encompasses both state and process descriptions:

> Burnout is a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in 'normal individuals'[2] that is primarily characterized by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation, and the development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviors at work. The psychological condition develops gradually but may remain unnoticed for a long time for the individual involved. It results from a misfit between intentions and reality at the job. Often burnout is self-perpetuating because of inadequate coping strategies that are associated with the syndrome. (p. 36)

Prevalence of Burnout

Prevalence estimates of burnout among police officers varies according to the dimensions of burnout. In an analysis of 73 U.S. studies on burnout among employees from various occupational fields, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) found that police officers had relatively high levels of depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Hawkins (2001) used a sample of 452 sworn officers from four U.S. police departments servicing populations ranging from 53,000 - 240,000 residents. His findings indicated that nearly 70% of officers were experiencing moderate to high levels of emotional exhaustion, 84.6% with moderate to high levels of depersonalization, and 66.3% with low personal accomplishment. In relation to law enforcement executives, Loo

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2 According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), 'normal' refers to individuals who do not otherwise suffer from mental health issues or related psychopathy.

(2004) analyzed burnout scores among a sample of 135 male Canadian police managers attending a leadership development training. Overall, the majority of police managers (54.8%) were characterized as "well-adjusted" after scoring high on personal accomplishment and low on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Nearly a third of police managers (34.1%), however, were identified as "distressed" after scoring high on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and moderate to high on reduced personal accomplishment.

Consequences of Burnout

The high prevalence estimates are problematic considering that burnout has been associated with a host of negative personal and organizational consequences. Individuals suffering from burnout may experience lower moral and psychological well-being (Cherniss, 1980), work-family conflicts (Jackson & Maslach, 1982), physical and mental illnesses (Maslach et al., 2001), insomnia (Armon et al., 2008), use negative coping mechanisms (e.g., substance abuse; Aloha et al., 2006; Padyab, Backteman-Erlanson, & Brulin, 2013), and have thoughts of suicide (Burke & Mikkelsen, 2005; Maslach, 1976).

In regards to organizational consequences, professionals high in burnout have been linked to increased aggressiveness and use of force by officers (Kop et al., 1999; Queirós, Kaiseler, & da Silva, 2013), absenteeism (Travis, Lizano, & Barak, 2015), impaired professional relationships with colleagues and the public (Smoktunowicz et al., 2015), reduced job performance (Maslach et al., 2001; Smoktunowicz et al., 2015), and ultimately turnover (Matz et al., 2014; Mor Barak et al., 2001). As a result, the array of personal and organizational consequences of burnout warrant further examination of the individual and work-related correlates of burnout. A better understanding of these

correlates can help shape preventative policies and programs that, in the long run, lower the costs of recruitment and trainings and increase the quality of services provided by employees. The following section provides an overview of the literature on the personal and work-related correlates of burnout among police officers and law enforcement executives. A summary of the findings can be found in Table 1.

Personal Characteristics

Given that burnout is a multidimensional construct, the extant scholarship has suggested that personal correlates have varying impacts on certain dimensions of burnout. Collectively, the literature examining individual-level correlates of burnout has focused primarily on factors such as age, sex, race, level of education, marital status, military experience, and tenure (Brewer & Shapard, 2004; Hartley et al., 2013; Hawkins, 2001; Ivie & Garland, 2011; Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Lim, Kim, Kim, Yang, & Lee, 2010; Maslach et al., 2001; Polk & Armstrong, 2001; Purvanova & Muros, 2010). The following section provides an overview of the scholarship on the above mentioned factors.

Age. Age is one of the most consistent predictors of burnout among helping professionals (Brewer & Shapard, 2004; Lim et al., 2010; Maslach et al., 2001). Cherniss (1980) has associated burnout among young professionals as the result of the reality shock of the job. Young officers who have idealistic expectations of high-impact police work that are consistent with media representations may struggle with the realities of the job. As a result, young professionals who lack experience, training, and appropriate coping mechanisms may be at a higher risk for burnout.

Meta-analytic studies of burnout among helping professionals have identified age as an important correlate of burnout (Brewer & Shapard, 2004; Lim et al., 2010). Indeed, in a meta-analysis of 34 studies on burnout among helping professionals, Brewer and Shapard (2004) found a small negative correlation with emotional exhaustion. In a more recent meta-analysis of 15 studies conducted over a 20-year period, Lim et al. (2010) found that mental health professionals who were younger were at a higher risk for emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. In relation to police officers, Hawkins (2001) also found that younger officers had higher levels of depersonalization than older officers.

Gender. Research has regularly investigated levels of burnout across genders. Scholars have suggested that females, overall, are at a higher risk for burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Meta-analytic studies, however, have shown that females are at a higher risk for emotional exhaustion (Purvanova & Muros, 2010), while males consistently score higher on depersonalization (Lim et al., 2010). Similar results were found in Hawkins's (2001) study of over 400 sworn officers from four U.S. police departments. Findings had indicated that male officers scored higher for depersonalization. Additionally, female officers scored higher than males on emotional exhaustion, yet the relationship was not significant. McCarty and Skogan (2012) examined burnout among a sample of 486 civilian and 2,078 sworn law enforcement personnel from 12 law enforcement agencies across the United States. Gender was a significant predictor of burnout among sworn employees only. Indeed, findings were consistent with Maslach et al. (2001), in that female sworn officers reported significantly higher burnout scores than their sworn male counterparts.

Race. Policing is predominately an Anglo-American industry with officers of color accounting for only 27% of sworn officers in municipal police departments (Reaves, 2015). As a result, limited research has shown that officers who are members of a racial or ethnic minority may be more prone to discriminatory treatment than white officers within their agency (Toch, 2002). In regards to burnout, the relationship between race and burnout has been mixed. Indeed, in a sample of 1,092 from the Baltimore Police Department found that while Black officers were more likely to feel negative or depressed about their job, there were no significant differences in burnout among black and non-black officers. Conversely, Hawkins (2001) found that white officers scored higher than non-white officers on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Hawkins's (2001) findings were consistent with a more recent study of burnout among a large sample of civilian and sworn police personnel from 12 U.S. police departments (McCarty & Skogan, 2012). McCarty and Skogan (2012) found that both black civilian and sworn law enforcement personnel reported significantly lower burnout scores than their Caucasian counterparts. Additionally, sworn Hispanic officers (not Hispanic civilian employees) also reported significantly lower burnout scores than sworn Caucasian officers.

Level of education. The relationship between officers' level of education and burnout is important to study considering the growing number of local police departments requiring some level of college education upon hiring (Reaves, 2015). Polk and Armstrong (2001) surveyed 5,323 officers from six large Texas police departments and found that, regardless of department requirements for education, officers with higher levels of education were more likely to move into supervisory and administrative

positions much quicker than those with a lower level of education. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), however, employees with a higher education have higher expectations for the job, which may increase their susceptibility for burnout. Overall, the research on education and burnout is mixed. In a meta-analysis of 15 studies, Lim et al. (2010) found that mental health professionals with a higher level of education were at a higher risk for emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment.

Using a sample of 212 sworn officers from a large suburban police department, (Cannizzo & University, 1995) found that officers with an associates or bachelor's degree had significantly lower levels of burnout than officers without a college degree. Conversely, other studies with large sample sizes of sworn officers have found that officers' level of education was not significantly associated with any of the three burnout constructs (Hawkins, 2001; Ivie & Garland, 2011). To date, however, little is known about the role of education and burnout among law enforcement executives.

Marital status. Marital status is an important concept to explore in relation to officer burnout for two reasons. First, social support, both in and outside of work, has been consistently identified as a protective factor for burnout and low job satisfaction (Halbesleben, 2006; Howard et al., 2003). Thus, having a supportive significant other can be a positive distraction and coping mechanism from the stress of the job. The extant scholarship on burnout and marital status has shown that single individuals are at a higher risk for burnout than those who are married or divorced (Maslach et al., 1996; Maslach et al., 2001).

On the other hand, previous studies have also found that the stress and demand of police work can negatively impact officers' home life (Howard, et al., 2004; Jackson &

Maslach, 1982). Indeed, Jackson and Maslach (1982) examined the impact of burnout on family life among 142 police couples in the United States. Findings had indicated that officers with higher levels of burnout were significantly more likely to distance themselves from their families in their off time, were less involved in family issues, exhibited anger more frequently, and were less satisfied with their marriages. This finding is fairly consistent with Hawkins (2001), who found that married officers scored higher on depersonalization. Conversely, among a sample of 600 officers from the Baltimore Police Department, Ivie and Garland (2011) found marital status was not significantly associated burnout.

Military experience. Police departments have traditionally operated as 'quasi-military' organizations since the inception of formalized police departments in the U.S. (Bittner, 1990). In fact, for some police forces, prior military experience has been an important component to the recruitment and training process due to the ease of transition from the military to law enforcement (Burke, 2016). Yet studies have demonstrated that police departments with paramilitary elements, such as hierarchical command structures and authoritarian organizational styles limit autonomy and discretionary decision-making (Maguire, 2003; NRC, 2004). This, in turn, can increase stress, burnout, and job dissatisfaction (Stevens, 2008; Zhao et al., 1999).

Few studies have explored the relationship between prior military experience and burnout. Using a sample of 452 sworn officers, Hartley and colleagues (2013) found that officers without military experience exhibited higher levels of stress as the result of organizational and life-threatening stressors than officers with military experience. Prior military with combat experience, however, was associated with less use of positive

coping mechanisms. Ivie and Garland (2011) used a sample of 231 Baltimore police officers (BPD) with prior military experience and 369 BPD officers without military experience to explore the relationship between military experience and burnout. Findings indicated that officers with more frequent exposures to negative and/or traumatic events had higher levels of burnout, particularly among officers with no military experience.

Tenure. Findings regarding the relationship between one's tenure in an occupation and burnout have been mixed. In a meta-analysis of 34 studies of helping professionals, Brewer and Shapard (2004) found that years of experience had a small negative correlation with burnout, suggesting that professionals with a longer tenure experience have lower burnout scores. Conversely, studies of tenure and burnout among police officers have produced opposite findings. In a sample of 422 officers from four police departments in a single state, Hawkins (2001) found that burnout was associated with job assignment and time on the job. More specifically, officers who spent more time in one position had higher emotional exhaustion, while officers with a longer tenure in law enforcement had higher levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Other studies, however, have suggested that the relationship between tenure is burnout is curvilinear (Burke, 1989; Cannizzo & Liu, 1995; Whitehead, 1985). Whitehead examined burnout among probation and parole officers and found that newer officers with fewer than six months of experience had the lowest rates of burnout. Burnout was highest among officers with three or more years of experience. Yet after 15 years of experience, the burnout scores decreased to levels similar to those of new officers. Similarly, Cannizzo and Lui (1995) found that levels of burnout increased with tenure and peaked among officers with 17-25 years of experience in law enforcement.

Consistent with the curvilinear relationship, levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization began to decline among officers with 26 or more years of experience.

Collectively, with the exception of age, gender, and military experience, the extant scholarship on personal correlates of burnout is mixed. Nevertheless, given that burnout primarily manifests from work-related stressors (Maslach et al., 2001), it is important to explore the impact of personal characteristics on burnout within the context of the work environment. Thus, the following section provides an overview of the work-related correlates of burnout.

Operational Characteristics

Operational stressors refer to aversive stimuli that manifests from tasks and responsibilities that are inherent in one's occupation (Stevens, 2008). For police officers, operational stressors can include - but are not limited to - exposure to critical incidents, working with the public and/or traumatized victims, threats to officers' safety, and boredom. One meta-analysis of 231 studies of public service professionals found that job demands (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, and workload) were significantly associated with all three burnout dimensions. The current study examines three key operational stressors: work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and job stress.

Work-family conflict. Work-family conflict (WFC) occurs when the stress and demands of the job spill over into officers' personal lives and create conflict within their families (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Examining WFC among police chiefs is salient, as this construct has been linked to job satisfaction (Howard et al., 2004), organizational commitment (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000), and turnover (Burke, 1988). Additionally, there is considerable evidence of an positive relationship between WFC and

stress-related outcomes, particularly job burnout (Allen et al., 2000; Burke, 1988; Martinussen, Richardsen, & Burke, 2007; Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005).

Martinussen et al. (2007) examined the impact of job demands (e.g., WFC), job resources (e.g., collegial support, autonomy) and potential consequences of burnout using sample of 223 Norwegian police officers. Findings indicated that job demands and resources, particular WFC were significantly associated with burnout. Other studies, however, have suggested that WFC mediates the relationship between operational stressors and emotional exhaustion. Using a longitudinal design, Hall and colleagues (2010) examined the impact of job demands and WFC on levels of emotional exhaustion among a sample of 257 Australian police officers. Findings indicated that WFC mediated the relationship between job demands (e.g., workload, time demands) and emotional exhaustion. In other words, excessive job demands can significantly influence emotional exhaustion, especially if the time-related job demands create conflict within officers' personal lives. Regarding law enforcement executives, managing a police department is a demanding responsibility that may interfere with their work-life balance. As a result, the strain and time demands from work may create conflict within the family and vice versa. Thus, more research is needed to understand the relationship between WFC and burnout among police administrators.

Family-work conflict. Family-work conflict (FWC) involves the relationship between the demands of one's personal life and how that impacts their work responsibilities (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Research has suggested that that FWC is more likely to create issues primarily within the family domain rather than the workplace

(Boles et al., 2001; Howard et al., 2004), yet FWC has also been found to shape work-related attitudes as well (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Using an online survey of 1,264 Dutch respondents, Peeters and colleagues (2005) found that increased quantitative (e.g., number of tasks to complete), emotional (e.g., frustrations), and mental (e.g., logistical aspects) home demands were directly influenced WFC and was indirectly associated with burnout. Said another away, the stress from home demands and conflict with ones' work-related responsibilities. As a result, increased home demands and FWC can increase symptoms of burnout.

Compared to the literature on WFC, however, less is known about the relationship between FCW and burnout among police officers. Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk, & Wells (2015) examined the impact of WFC and FWC on job stress and job satisfaction among 441 officers employed at 13 different adult correctional facilities in Texas. Findings indicated that FWC, along with strain and behavior-based WFC significantly increased job stress and reduced job satisfaction among correctional officers. Even though job satisfaction and job stress are linked to burnout among law enforcement personnel (Alarcon, 2011; Martinussen et al., 2007), additional research is warranted to better understand the relationship between WFC and FWC among law enforcement personnel.

Job stress. Job stress encompasses a broad array of individual and organizational stimuli and while there is no uniform definition, the phenomenon can be described as "…the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, needs, or expectations of the work" (Stevens, 2008, p. 51). Job stressors relate to the "…antecedent conditions within one job or the organization which require adaptive responses on the part of employees" (Jex & Beehr,

1991, p. 312). Job stressors can include – but are not limited to – job demands (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, role stress, workload), exposure to critical incidents (e.g., officer involved shootings, traumatized victims, child homicides/sexual assaults), and/or the workplace environment itself (e.g., physical comfort) (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Meta-analytic studies have consistently found positive associations between job stress and burnout (Alcaron, 2011; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Lee and Ashforth (1996) conducted a meta-analysis of 61 interdisciplinary studies and found that job demands, including issues with one's role in their organization (e.g., role clarity, conflict, and stress), exposure to stressful events, workload, and work pressure were significantly associated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Job stress and its relationship to burnout has been a popular area of inquiry in the policing literature (Hawkins, 2001; Martinussen et al., 2007; McCarty et al., 2007). McCarty and colleagues (2007) examined correlates of burnout among a sample of 2,078 sworn law enforcement personnel from 12 law enforcement agencies across the United States. Findings indicated that job related stressors such as perceived danger and work family conflict were significantly related to higher levels of burnout among sworn officers.

To date, much of the burnout and policing literature has focused on front-line officers. No studies to this author's knowledge have examined operational stressors associated with burnout among law enforcement executives. In a qualitative study of 10 police chiefs who recently left their positions, stress and family were two common justifications that shaped their decision to leave (Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). Job related stressors, such as "The long hours, on-call status, lack of opportunity for healthful

activity and exercise, and overall felling of being tired" (p. 276) were mentioned by several police chiefs. Moreover, additional qualitative and quantitative research is needed to better understand the personal, operational, and organizational correlates of burnout among police administrators.

In sum, there is considerable evidence to suggest that operational stressors such as WFC, FWC, and job stress play an important role in the burnout process. However, previous studies have shown that burnout manifests predominantly via organizational factors (Gershon et al., 2009; Maslach et al., 2001). Thus, the following section describes the key organizational characteristics associated with burnout among police personnel.

Organizational Characteristics

Organizational stressors relate to the structural and procedural aspects of an organization that influence employees' reactions to aversive stimuli (Stevens, 2008). Common organizational stressors for policing include - but are not limited to - bureaucratic procedures, organizational and/or supervisor support, staffing and resources, and job-related attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction). In a meta-analysis of 231 studies of helping professionals, Alarcon (2011) found that job resources (e.g., autonomy and participation in decision-making processes) and attitudes (e.g., organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions) were significantly related to all three burnout constructs.

The extant scholarship has consistently shown that burnout manifests primarily from organizational versus operational stressors (Gershon et al., 2009; Maslach et al., 2001). Shane (2010) notes that organizational stressors are often out of individual employees' control and can feel restrictive, inefficient, and unnecessary. The

bureaucratic, quasi-military, and authoritarian structure of police departments can restrict discretion (Maguire, 2003; NRC, 2004; Weisburd & Braga, 2006). This can be increasingly stressful when officers are required to be generalists and develop solutions for a smorgasbord of issues that may be better handled by social workers, mental health specialists, and/or drug and alcohol counselors (Manning, 1977). As a result, it can be challenging for officers to feel like they are making a difference and serving the community when they are bogged down by bureaucratic procedures and restricting/conflicting policies (Stevens, 2008).

On the other hand, law enforcement executives enjoy greater discretion than their constituents and are responsible for shaping the organizational climate (Cordner, 2016; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Witham & Watson, 1983). Thus, less is known as to whether organizational stressors similarly impact burnout among administrators. The current study focused on two organizational stressors: collegial support and organizational commitment

Collegial support. Collegial support refers to work-related instrumental (i.e., tangible help), emotional (e.g., listening, validation, and/or sympathy), and informational support (e.g., advice) from coworkers and supervisors. Several meta-analytic studies have identified social support as an important resource for mitigating symptoms of burnout (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). Collegial support is integral for police work as it can shape officer morale and promote social solidarity among officers (Pogrebin & Poole, 1988). Research has documented the strong bonds and subcultures developed among police officers (Crank, 2014; Paoline & Terrill, 2013). Having opportunities to vent frustrations, seek advice,

and/or joke about the stressful and radical nuances of police work with coworkers can provide validation and encouragement (Pogrebin & Poole, 1988). As a result, the support from fellow officers can increase job satisfaction (Johnson, 2012) and organizational commitment (Jaramillo et al., 2005), which, in turn, can help mitigate symptoms of burnout (McCarty & Skogan, 2012).

Organizational commitment. To date, few studies have explored the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout among police personnel. Some studies, however, have explored the relationship between the two constructs among correctional officers (Garland, Lambert, Hogan, Kim, & Kelley, 2014; Griffin, Hogan, Lambert, Tucker-Gail, & Baker, 2009). Studies of criminal justice personnel have treated organizational commitment as either the outcome variable (Martinussen et al., 2007) or as a predictor (Garland et al., 2014; Griffin et al., 2009). The lack of longitudinal studies of burnout among police officers limits our understanding of the temporal order of the two constructs.

Collectively, the findings on the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout are mixed. Using a sample of 223 Norwegian officers, Martinussen and colleagues (2007) examined the impact of the three burnout dimensions on organizational commitment. Findings indicated that only cynicism had a significant negative relationship with organizational commitment. Griffin et al. (2009) examined the impact of organizational commitment on burnout among 160 correctional officers at a private, maximum security prison in a Midwestern state. Overall, organizational commitment was not significantly related to any of the three burnout dimensions.

Given that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Allen, 1984), Garland et al. (2014) expanded on Griffin and colleagues' findings to determine if different dimensions of organizational commitment better explained the risk of burnout among correctional officers. Results revealed a significant negative relationship between affective commitment and a positive association with continuance commitment across all three burnout dimensions. In other words, correctional officers who have strong affective ties to their organization are less likely to feel emotionally drained, are less likely to be cynical and detached, and are less likely to feel ineffective in their role. Conversely, in regards to continuance commitment, officers with substantial social, monetary, and status-related investments that would be lost if they left their organization are more likely to feel emotionally fatigued, are more cynical to coworkers and clients, and feel a reduced sense of professional efficacy. Despite the mixed findings, there is some evidence to suggest that organizational commitment is a key component to foster within criminal justice agencies, as it is linked to officer well-being. Less is known, however, about the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout among police administrators.

In sum, the extant burnout scholarship has revealed important individual, operational, and organizational correlates of burnout among police officers. Overall, with the exception of age, gender, and military experience, the impact of officer demographics on burnout is rather mixed. Operational and organizational stressors, however, demonstrate a much more consistent relationship with burnout, particularly regarding WFC, FWC, job stress, and collegial support. While much of the literature on organizational commitment and burnout is mixed, the findings underscore the importance

of assessing OC as a multidimensional vs. unidimensional construct. Finally, not only is there a gap in the literature on the relationship between OC and burnout among police officers, there exists few to no studies of the correlates and consequences of burnout among police administrators. To increase job satisfaction and prevent police chief burnout and turnover, a multidimensional analysis is needed to identify and isolate the key personal, operational, and organizational correlates.

Turnover

Similar to the JS and burnout literature, three dimensions of individual and work-related correlates appear in the discussion of turnover: personal, operational, and organizational characteristics (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubenstein et al., 2015). Research on the correlates of police officer turnover is limited, yet growing. To date, no policing study to this author's knowledge has simultaneously analyzed and identified the unique effects of personal and work-related characteristics on turnover intentions, particularly among police chiefs. This sections begins with a discussion on conceptualizations, prevalence estimates, and consequences for turnover, followed by an overview of the extant scholarship on the key personal and work-related correlates.

Defining Turnover

Turnover occurs when an employee is no longer employed with an organization (Wilson, Dalton, Scheer, & Grammich, 2010). More specifically, there are two major types of turnover: voluntary and involuntary (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Voluntary turnover (VT) is the most common form of turnover in policing and occurs when an employee chooses to leave their organization (e.g., quitting, retirement) (Lynch & Tuckey, 2008).

Conversely, involuntary turnover (IT) occurs when an employee is asked or forced to leave either by their organization (e.g., termination), or as the result of external factors such as death or illness (Lynch & Tuckey, 2008). Using two taxonomies of turnover can create much ambiguity, as there are countless justifications for why an employee leaves an organization. For example, resignations could either be voluntary or involuntary, depending on whether the employee is asked to resign or resigns on their own volition. Thus, "…the degree to which an employee has control over the decision about whether or not to leave an organization is the key factor that distinguishes between voluntary and involuntary turnover" (Lynch & Tuckey, 2008, p. 8).

Turnover Intentions vs. Actual Turnover

Turnover intent refers to the process by which an employee contemplates, plans, or has a desire to leave their organization (Mobley et al., 1979). Conversely, actual turnover involves the actual cessation behavior where one's employment with an organization is terminated either voluntarily or involuntarily (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mobley et al., 1979). The current study focuses on turnover intentions versus actual turnover for four main reasons. First, the data were cross-sectional and consisted of respondents who were currently employed with a police department. Second, meta-analytic studies have identified turnover intentions as one of the strongest predictors of actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2011). Third, according to Mor Barak and colleagues (2011) "…it is more practical to ask employees of their intention to quit in a cross-sectional study than actually to track them down via a longitudinal study to see if they have left, or to conduct a retrospective study and risk hindsight biases" (p. 630). Finally, implications from studies identifying

antecedents of turnover intention have the potential to improve the work environment early enough to sway those employees who are thinking about quitting (Dalessio, Silverman, & Schuck, 1986; Lambert & Hogan, 2009). For example, Dalessio and colleagues have previously argued:

> More attention should be given to the direct and indirect influences of variables on intention to quit as opposed to the actual act of turnover. From the employer's standpoint, intention to quit may be a more important variable then the actual act of turnover. If the precursors to intention to quit are better understood, the employer could possibly institute changes to affect this intention. However, once an employee has quit, there is little the employer can do except assume the expense of hiring and training another employee. (p. 261)

Prevalence of Turnover

Overall rates and patterns of turnover among law enforcement agencies have remained relatively unknown, with much of the information stemming from estimates obtained from individual agencies or statewide assessments (Doerner, 1995; Orrick, 2005; Wilson et al., 2010). More recently, however, studies analyzing nationally representative data sources of state and local law enforcement agencies (e.g., the Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies [CSLLEA] and the Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics [LEMAS] survey), have established total annual turnover estimates for law enforcement ranging from 7.4% to 10.8% (Reaves, 2012; Wareham, Smith, & Lambert, 2015). Compared to other helping professions such as nurses or teachers (17.1% and 17.3%, respectively), turnover prevalence estimates for full-time sworn personnel are much lower (Colosi, 2016; Gray, Taie, & O'Rear, 2015).

However, Doerner (1995) has suggested that annual turnover estimates for law enforcement or corrections agencies that exceed 10% are problematic. Although Wareham and colleagues (2015) found that the national turnover rate was 10.8% (N=14,969), mean estimates for each individual state ranged from 2.32% to 31.83% in 2008. When comparing turnover estimates according to size, agency type, and geographical location, Wareham et al. (2015) found that turnover rates were significantly higher among municipal agencies, smaller agencies (e.g., 1-49 sworn officers), rural agencies, and agencies in the South.

To date, few studies have established turnover intention and/or actual turnover estimates among police chiefs. Peak and Glensor (1996) noted that the average tenure of metropolitan police chiefs from 12 of the 15 largest police departments ranged from 3.5 to 4.5 years. In 1997, the International Associated of Chiefs of Police estimated that major city police chiefs served, on average, 2.5 years (as cited in Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). In the same year, the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) reported the average tenure of police chiefs from large police departments (e.g., populations > 500,000) was 4.93 years (*Police Executive Survey,* 1998). Maguire (2003) noted that the median tenure of police chiefs across 389 large municipal police department was four years, while the mean was "…slightly more than five years" (p. 134). The most recent prevalence estimates have suggested that only 12% of police chiefs have served more than ten years, while nearly two-thirds leave their position within five years (Fischer, 2009). Collectively, the extant scholarship has shown that the average tenure of police chiefs is relatively short.

Consequences of Turnover

Turnover is an important concern for policing considering the number of direct and indirect cost associated with employees leaving an organization. Direct costs can be compartmentalized into three main categories: separation costs (e.g., exit interviews, unemployment taxes, separation pay); replacement costs (e.g., recruitment, selection/vetting processes); and training costs (e.g., preservice training and on-the-job training) (Evans, Cristopher, & Stoffel, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001). Personnel costs, including salaries and benefits, account for nearly 80-90% of a police departments operating expenditures (Reaves, 2015). On average, full-time sworn police officers cost their communities an estimated $131,000 per officer (Reaves, 2015). Some scholars have suggested that replacing one entry-level officer can amount to twice his or her salary (Orrick, 2002). According to Copeland (2009), the estimated cost to select, hire, and train a new employee in 2009 was around $58,000 per officer. Other estimates of replacing and training new recruits can range from $80,000 – 100,000 per officer (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2008; Moskos, 2009)

Indirect costs, albeit much more difficult to account for, can include lower productivity and performance, group cohesion deficits, disrupted social networks and/or community ties, low officer morale, and turnover contagion among other officers (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Griffeth et al., 2000; Orrick, 2002; 2008; Mowday et al., 1982; Park & Shaw, 2013; Wareham et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2010). One meta-analysis of 48 studies found a significant negative relationship between collective employee turnover and organizational performance (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, Pierce, 2013). Losing quality officers can disrupt the productivity and performance of an organization in five

important ways. First, productivity and performance can be inhibited from the lack of motivation of an officer leading up to their departure (Orrick, 2002). Turnover can also impact the morale and stress levels of their colleagues from taking on additional responsibilities and workload demands from departing colleagues (Drew et al., 2008). High levels of turnover results in a loss of knowledge, expertise, and community ties (e.g., relationships with confidential informants) that cannot be easily fulfilled by new recruits (Orrick, 2002, 2008; Wison et al., 2010). Turnover, particularly among police chiefs, can interfere with an organizations' missions and goals, along with disrupt ongoing initiatives implemented by previous police chiefs (Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). Finally, turnover can produce a contagion or cumulative effect among officers, whereby the resignation of one officer may encourage other officers to leave the organization as well (Cawsey & Wedley, 1979).

It is important to note, however, that employee turnover can produce positive outcomes for law enforcement agencies. Indeed, turnover can help liberate the department from stagnate or inefficient leadership (Orrick, 2005; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). New leadership may help cultivate positive cultural changes and initiatives that allow for organizational growth and improvement, particularly in times when police departments are facing increased scrutiny (Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). Yet the positive aspects of removing low quality officers is limited to the duration in which an agency can fill the vacant positions with quality officers (Hur, 2013). Hur (2009) conducted a national study and found that filling vacant positions in municipal police departments with sworn officers can take, on average, six or more months. Collectively, law enforcement is an expensive enterprise and the costs associated with turnover can have

grave implications for the organization and the consistency, quality, and stability of services provided to the community. To date, however, little is known about the personal, operational, and organizational characteristics associated turnover intentions among law enforcement officers. A summary of the findings can be found in Table 1.

Personal Characteristics

Studies on turnover among professionals outside the criminal justice field have examined the impact of age, gender, race, education, marital status, and tenure (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubenstein et al. 2015). Much of the literature, however, has shown weak or inconsistent findings. This has been the case in studies of turnover among police officers as well (Allisey et al., 2014; Doerner, 1995; Drew et al., 2008; Haar, 2005; Jones et al., 2005; McElroy, Morrow, & Wardlow, 1999; Rainguet, 1998; Reece, 2011; Wood, 2002).

Sex. Meta-analytic studies using non-law enforcement samples have consistently found no significant difference between females and males on turnover intention and/or actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Rubenstein et al., 2015). With studies of law enforcement personnel, however, the findings are mixed. Doerner (1995) examined turnover rates among a sample of 132 newly sworn officers that were hired by the Tallahassee Police Department in Tallahassee Florida between 1981 and 1986. Using data collected from personnel files in 1994, findings indicated that actual turnover rates among female officers nearly doubled that of male officers, with 67% of female recruits leaving the department compared to 39% of male officers. Among other studies of turnover among law enforcement officials, however, gender has not been a

significant predictor of turnover intentions or actual turnover (Allisey et al., 2014; Drew et al., 2008; Haarr, 2005)

Age. Meta-analytic studies of turnover have produced mixed results regarding age as a significant predictor of turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubenstein et al., 2015). Mor Barak and colleagues (2001) conducted a meta-analysis of turnover among professionals in the public service industry and found that younger employees (generally with less training) had higher rates of turnover than their older counterparts. In a meta-analysis of 570 articles on turnover published between 1975 through 2012, Rubenstein et al. (2015) identified age as one of the strongest predictors of actual turnover. The authors contended that younger employees may be more likely than older colleagues to have lower investments with an organization and seek out new opportunities if the organization does not fulfill their social, emotional, and occupational needs. Age has not been found to be a significant predictor of turnover among law enforcement personnel (Allisey et al., 2014; Rainguet, 1998).

Race. Contemporary policing continues to be dominated by white males, with the most recent national estimates suggesting that officers of color account for 27% of all full-time sworn officers in local police departments (Reaves, 2015). Recent estimates suggest that nearly one in five (21%) state and local police departments of all sizes engage in recruitment efforts that specifically target women and racial/ethnic minorities (Reaves, 2012). Meta-analytic studies have consistently shown that race/ethnicity is not a significant predictor of turnover behaviors. However, there is some evidence that turnover rates are significant higher among minority officers (Haar, 2005), particularly among black female officers (Doerner, 1995).

Doerner (1995) had found that attrition rates for white officers were significantly lower than rates for minority officers. By 1994, 51% of black and 48% of white recruits who were hired by a Florida police department during 1981-1986 were no longer employed. Findings had indicated that attrition rates during the field training phase were significantly higher among black officers than white officers. Moreover, over an eight-year period, the attrition rate for black female recruits increased from 20% to nearly 70%, which was substantially higher than any other race by sex combination.

Haarr (2005) examined turnover among a panel sample of 446 police recruits from a single state that were in the first 16 months of their policing careers. From preservice training through the completion of a one-year probationary period, 25.3% of recruits left police work within the 16-month period. Findings indicated that officers of color, particularly Native American and Hispanic/Latino/Latina recruits, were significantly more likely to leave police work than their Caucasian counterparts. Unlike Doerner (1995), however, white officers left police work at a higher rate than African American recruits (22% vs. 14%, respectively). While meta-analytic studies using non-law enforcement samples have found race/ethnicity to be insignificantly associated with turnover, there is some evidence to suggest that officers of color turnover at higher rates than their white counterparts.

Education. Research on the impact of education and police performance has been mixed. Advocates of police departments requiring college degrees for new recruits argue that many of the critical thinking, communication, and problem solving skills developed during college can be applicable and integral to quality policing (Dantzker, 1993; NRC, 2004). Conversely, scholars have argued that officers with higher levels of education may

become more easily frustrated with bureaucratic procedures and promotional opportunities, resulting in a lower job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Carter, Sapp, & Stephens, 1989). Nevertheless, Jones et al. (2005) found no significant differences in turnover intentions among officers with a college degree and officers without a degree. While studies have linked higher levels of education to increased promotional opportunities in police departments (Polk & Armstrong, 2001), very few studies have examined the impact of education on performance, stress, and/or turnover among law enforcement executives.

In 1976, the Police Chief Executive Committee mandated that all departments with 75 or more sworn officers should establish a minimum education requirement of a four-year college degree for police chiefs (Witham, 1985). Ten years after the mandate, however, Witham (1985) revealed that only 50% of police chiefs possessed a four-year degree. In a more recent study of 164 Texas police chiefs, 21% held a Bachelor's degree and 16% possessed a graduate degree (Li, 2016). Meta-analytic studies have suggested that education is not significantly linked to turnover behaviors (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Rubenstein et al., 2015). Conversely, one meta-analysis of human service professionals found that education had a significant positive association with turnover intent, but not actual turnover. The dearth of information on education and turnover in policing is mixed and limited to non-administrative personnel (Jones et al., 2005; Haarr, 2005).

Using a sample of 357 Michigan police troopers, Weirman (1978) found that officers with higher levels of education had better interpersonal relationships with others, yet were more likely to voluntarily leave the police force than officers with less

education. However, officers with less education were more likely to be dismissed by the police force for cause. Significant differences also emerged among a panel sample of 446 police recruits in Arizona (Haarr, 2005). Overall, turnover rates were lower among police recruits with some college experience and/or a four-year degree (21.8%). Turnover rates were highest among police recruits with a high school diploma or equivalent (37.9%), and respondents with a graduate degree (36.8%). Balfe (2005) used a sample of 99 police chiefs from a Midwestern state and found education had a weak negative correlation with turnover. More specifically, police chiefs with a higher level of education served fewer years as the chief of police in their department. Collectively, while much of the non-policing literature is mixed regarding the association between education and turnover, there is some evidence that officers with higher levels of education are at a higher risk for turnover.

Marital status. While the demanding nature of police work can negatively impact officers' family life (Gershon et al., 2009: Karaffa et al., 2014), previous meta-analyses have consistently found that marital status is not significantly related to turnover intent and/or actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubenstein et al., 2015). Conversely, other studies using police samples have found that being married may be a protective factor against turnover (Haarr, 2005; Wood, 2002). Haarr (2005) found that attrition rates among married police recruits were significantly lower than recruits who were either single or separated/divorced. Using a sample of 113 current and former Alaskan Village Public Safety Officers, marital status was a significant predictor of turnover, such that officers who were not married were

nearly twice as likely as married officers to leave (Wood, 2002). Less is known about the impact of marital status among law enforcement executives.

Tenure. Previous studies have found an inverse relationship between years of experience and turnover among professionals in public service (Gray, & Phillips, 1994; McElroy et al., 1999; Somers, 1996). Meta-analytic studies have produced mixed results, with some studies revealing no significant relationship between tenure and turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Rubenstein et al., 2015), while Mor Barak et al. (2001) found a significant negative relationship between tenure and turnover intention and actual turnover.

Similar to policing studies, the relationship between tenure and turnover is mixed. Using a sample of 137 officers attending a training academy in a Midwestern state, McElroy and colleagues (1999) found that mean intent to stay values were significantly lower among officers with less years of experience. Conversely, Reece (2011) examined turnover among a sample of 379 Colorado patrol officers and found that length of employment had a significantly positive relationship with turnover.

Operational Characteristics

The extant scholarship has explored several operational factors and their association with turnover. Operational factors refer to the nature and processes inherently involved in one's work-related responsibilities and can include job resources (e.g., autonomy, discretion), job demands (e.g., ambiguity/conflict associated with one's role, dangerousness), job stress, and family-work conflict (Alarcon, 2011; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubenstein et al., 2015). The current

study explores the impact of the latter two operational stressors: job stress and family-work conflict.

Work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Work-family conflict (WFC) occurs when the demands of the job overflow into employees' personal lives and create conflict within their family (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). On the other hand, family work-conflict (FWC) occurs when the demands of one's personal and/or family life interferes with one's work related roles and responsibilities. Both constructs have been linked to burnout and dissatisfaction with work, compensation, supervision, and collegial relationships (Howard et al., 2004; Peeters et al., 2005; Singh & Nayak, 2015).

Few studies have explored the relationship between WFC and FWC with turnover, particularly among police officers. One meta-analysis of 570 turnover articles published over a 40-year period found that work-family conflict was positively associated with actual turnover (Rubenstein et al., 2015). In one of the only qualitative studies on turnover among police chiefs, Rainguet and Dodge (2001) interviewed 10 chiefs in a western state who left police work within the past five years. Several chiefs identified family-related issues as a common justification for leaving their organization. Indeed, one police chief mentioned that the work-relate demands made it increasingly difficult to balance the needs of his job with the health needs of his family. Another chief discussed leaving due to residential restrictions impacting the safety and well-being of his family. Additional research is needed to further explore how WFC and FWC impacts turnover among front-line officers and law enforcement executives.

Job stress. Managing a police department is an extremely demanding job, particularly when every move an officer makes is closely monitored and scrutinized by

disgruntled citizens, supervisors, and the federal government. While studies have shown that police work is no more stressful than other occupations (Kirkcaldy et al., 1995), other studies have shown that the life expectancy rate of male police officers is significantly lower than that of males in the general U.S. population (Violanti et al., 2013). Nevertheless, job stress has consistently been found to have a significant positive association with turnover intent and actual turnover in both policing and non-policing studies (Allisey et al., 2014; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001). While job stress is an important correlate of turnover behaviors, scholars have argued that stress manifests primarily from organizational versus operational stressors (Gershon et al., 2009; Shane, 2010).

Organizational Characteristics

Organizational stressors (e.g., organizational structure, lack of organizational, managerial, and/or collegial support, inflexible policies and procedures) exist as structural elements of the work environment that can negatively affect the overall well-being and satisfaction of employees. According to Shane (2010), organizational stressors are particularly damaging to front-line officers since they "…may be perceived as oppressive, unnecessary, and inescapable" (p. 808). The bureaucratic, authoritarian, quasi-military structure of police departments can substantially limit the discretion and autonomy of front-line officers (Maguire, 2003; NRC, 2004; Weisburd & Braga, 2006). Officers are often required to carry out demanding duties and abide by policies and procedures established by administrators, which can sometimes conflict with the realities of everyday police work (Weisburd & Braga, 2006). As a result, without proper support and coping mechanisms, the juxtaposition of dealing with operational and organizational

stressors can lead to the development of negative behavioral, psychological, and physiological outcomes (Gershon et al., 2009).

To date, however, much of the stress and policing literature has focused on front-line officers, and given that police administrators enjoy much more autonomy and discretion (Witham & Watson, 1983), little is known about the impact of organizational stressors on turnover intentions among police chiefs. Previous studies have linked numerous organizational stressors to turnover behaviors, including collegial support, organizational attitudes (e.g., burnout, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment), and structural elements, such as organizational size (Allisey et al., 2014; Barbour et al., 2009; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubenstein et al., 2015).

Collegial support. Meta-analytic studies of public service professionals (Mor Barak et al., 2001) and other non-criminal justice related professionals (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Rubenstein et al., 2015) have consistently found a significant negative relationship between collegial support and turnover. While research has documented the strong bonds developed among police personnel (Crank, 2014; Paoline & Terrill, 2013), findings related to the impact of collegial support on turnover behaviors among police officers has been mixed. Barbour et al. (2009) examined this relationship using a sample of 397 Australian police officers. Findings indicated that coworker support was significantly related to higher job satisfaction, lower psychological strain, and a lower propensity to leave their organization. Allisey and colleagues (2014) examined correlates of job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions among a sample of 1,789 officers in the United Kingdom. While coworker support was

significantly related to job stress, it was not associated with job satisfaction or turnover intentions. Manager support, however, was significantly associated with job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Despite mixed findings, there is some evidence that has suggested that coworker and managerial support play a key role in shaping officers decision to leave.

Job satisfaction. The extant turnover scholarship has revealed that job satisfaction among policing and nonpolicing personnel is one of the strongest and most consistent predictors of turnover intentions and actual turnover behavior (Allisey et al., 2014; Brough & Frame, 2004; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Matz et al., 2014; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubentein et al., 2015; Reece, 2011). Allisey and colleagues (2014) used a sample of 1,789 United Kingdom-based officers and found that officers with higher levels of job satisfaction had significantly lower intentions to leave police work. Furthermore, Brough and Frame (2004) conducted a longitudinal study of turnover intentions among a sample of 229 New Zealand police officers. Findings indicated that job satisfaction was directly related to turnover intentions at time one. Over a four-month timeframe, however, while job satisfaction mediated the relationship between supervisor support and turnover intentions at time two, job satisfaction was not a significant predictor of turnover intentions over time. Collectively, the extant scholarship suggests that job satisfaction may be a valuable factor that influences officer retention efforts.

Burnout. Similar to the research on job satisfaction and turnover, meta-analytic studies have identified burnout as another consistent predictor of turnover intentions and actual turnover behavior (Mor Barak et al., 2001), particularly among law enforcement

personnel (Matz et al., 2014). Matz and colleagues conducted a meta-analysis on correlates of turnover intentions in criminal justice organizations. Among studies of law enforcement, job satisfaction and burnout were among the second and fourth strongest predictors of turnover intentions. Other predictors of turnover included alternative job search behaviors, procedural and distributive justice, and psychological distress. Less is known about the impact of burnout and turnover intentions among law enforcement executives. Given that burnout manifests predominantly from organizational factors (Gershon et al., 2009), symptoms of burnout may be lower among law enforcement executives considering their ability to shape the work environment.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is one of the most often studied constructs in the management and organizational psychology literatures (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Riketta, 2002). Moreover, the findings have produced salient implications at the individual and organization level. Meta-analytic studies have found a positive relationship between OC and overall job satisfaction, motivation, and job performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Riketta, 2002). Other meta-analyses have examined antecedents, correlates, and consequences associated with specific dimensions of OC. In a meta-analysis of 155 studies, Meyer and colleagues (2002) found that all three commitment dimensions were negatively associated with absenteeism, turnover intentions, and actual turnover (Meyer et al., 2002). Other meta-analytic studies have consistently found a strong negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions and actual turnover behaviors (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Rubentein et al., 2015).

Few to no studies have examined organizational commitment among police administrators. On one hand, police administrators have dedicated a great deal of time and energy to moving up the ranks, which demonstrates a strong commitment to an organization. On the other hand, organizational commitment might depend on whether the chief was an internal or external hire (Enter, 1986). Given that external hires would be relatively new to a department, they may have had less time to develop strong emotional bonds to the organizations than a chief who is hired internally. Nevertheless, there is considerable evidence to suggest that organizational commitment, along with job satisfaction and burnout, are integral components that shape officers' decision to leave police work.

Summary

Despite the demanding nature of the position, very few studies have explored the individual, operational, and organizational correlates of JS, burnout, and turnover behavior among police chiefs. To date, much of the current police stress literature has focused on front-line officers and/or mid-level managers. Even among studies of police chiefs, scholars have focused more on identifying external (e.g., sovereigns) versus internal stressors associated with turnover. While informative, more information is needed to identify and isolate key characteristics of these outcomes to improve the overall well-being of police chiefs. As a result, the implications derived from this study can help chiefs better understand areas of their work and family life that place them at risk for negative physical, psychological, and behavioral outcomes.

Collectively, the extant scholarship on JS, burnout, turnover intentions, and actual turnover among police officers has revealed mixed findings regarding officer

demographics. Similar to the literatures on job satisfaction and burnout, however, there is considerable evidence that suggests that operational and organizational characteristics may be better predictors of job related attitudes and turnover behaviors. For turnover intentions and actual turnover, work-related attitudes such as JS, burnout, and organizational commitment have been consistently identified as the strongest predictors. Thus in order to better understand turnover behaviors among police chiefs, it is important to first identify the underlying mechanisms shaping these work-related attitudes. Overall, previous studies have linked job satisfaction among police personnel to personal (e.g., education and tenure), operational (e.g., work-family conflict, job stress), and organizational correlates (e.g., collegial support and burnout) (Burke et al., 1984; Howard et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 1999; Jaramillo et al., 2005; Johnson, 2012). Finally, personal correlates of burnout have included age, gender, and prior military experience. Operational correlates include work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and job stress), while collegial support has been identified as an important organizational correlate of burnout (Hall et al., 2010; Hawkins, 2001; Ivie & Garland, 2011; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; McCarty & Skogan, 2012).

The primary purpose of this study was to identify and isolate the key factors associated with JS, burnout, and turnover intentions. Given that previous studies have found that police chiefs serve relatively short-tenures, more information is needed to understand the factors shaping their decision to leave their organization (Fischer, 2009; Peak & Glensor, 1996; *Police Executive Survey*, 1998; Maguire, 1993). Other studies have found that turnover is contingent on chiefs' abilities to fostering positive social relationships with institutional sovereigns (Li, 2016; Murdaugh, 2005). Less is known,

however, about the personal and work-related stressors associated with the facets of the job that bring joy to police chiefs, how these factors are associated with negative outcomes, such as burnout and turnover. Thus, the current study explores these factors with data obtained from Texas police chiefs. Specifically, these data were used to explore the following research questions:

Research Question #1: What personal, operational, and organizational factors increase job satisfaction among Texas police chiefs?

Research Question #2: What personal, operational, and organizational factors increase exhaustion among Texas police chiefs?

Research Question #3: What personal, operational, and organizational factors increase disengagement among Texas police chiefs?

Research Question #4: What personal, operational, and organizational factors increase turnover intentions among Texas police chiefs?

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Data

Data for the current project stemmed from an ongoing original data collection effort with Texas police chiefs participating in the Texas Police Chief Leadership Series (TPCLS) program or the Texas Major Cities Police Chiefs Leadership Series (TMCPCLS). The TPCLS/TMCPCLS is a state-mandated, continuing education program for Texas police chiefs facilitated by the Bill Blackwood Law Enforcement Management Institute of Texas (LEMIT). The program is designed to enhance the leadership skills of police administrators, build their capacity to effectively manage their agencies, and keep abreast of emerging issues that are salient in policing and police administration. The TPCLS is offered on a two-year cycle to every Texas police chief from small to medium-sized police departments. In other words, police chiefs of agencies serving cities or towns in Texas with less than 100,000 residents are required to complete the TPCLS once every two years. Texas police chiefs serving populations of 100,000 residents or more attend the TMCPCLS. The TMCPCLS is similar to the TPCLS, yet the objectives and content covered in the trainings cater toward the roles and responsibilities of Chiefs responsible for large or extra large police departments. Moreover, data were collected from participants attending either the TPCLS or the TMCPCLS.

The Texas Chiefs of Police Panel Project (TCPPP) is an ongoing data collection project where data on core and supplemental topics are collected from participants in the TPCLS and TMCPCLS. The TCPPP was developed by researchers in the Department of Criminal Justice and Criminology at Sam Houston State University, in conjunction with

LEMIT, in 2011 (King & Campbell, 2013). The TCPPP provides a unique opportunity to collect panel data on issues in policing every two years from Texas police chiefs.

Data for the current study were obtained from three modules of wave three of the TCPPP, which included police chief demographics, work/life balance, and stress. Paper and pencil surveys for wave three of the TCPPP were administered between September 1, 2015 and July 29, 2016.[3] Participants were asked to complete and return their surveys at their convenience at some point during the week-long training. Prior distribution of TCPPP surveys at wave one and two demonstrated that the surveys take less than one hour to complete. As of November 2016, 330 out of the 449 participating police chiefs had completed the survey, resulting in a 73.5% response rate. Out of the 330 completed surveys, two were omitted due to lack of variation in the responses. Two additional surveys were completed by a representative of a state police agency and one from a sheriffs' department. Considering that the current study focused solely on municipal police chiefs, the two surveys were omitted. Finally, female police chiefs accounted for 3% (n = 10) of the sample. Despite paralleling national estimates (Reaves, 2015), the 10 cases were omitted from the final analysis due to the limited number of cases. Thus, the final sample for the current study was 316 Texas police chiefs.

Dependent Variables

The present analyses focused on four primary outcomes: Job satisfaction, burnout: exhaustion, burnout: disengagement, and turnover intentions.

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[3]July 29, 2016 is the last date of data collection for wave three *for the current project.* Data collection for wave three of the TCPPP will continue through August 31, 2017. Overall, from September 1, 2015 to July 29th, 2016, there were a total of six TCPLS trainings totaling 354 participants. Additionally, while the TCPPP is designed as a panel project, data for the current study are cross-sectional.

Job satisfaction. *Job satisfaction* was conceptualized according to Hopkins (1983), who defined job satisfaction as the "…the fulfillment or gratification of certain needs that are associated with one's work" (p. 7). Job satisfaction was captured using a job satisfaction scale created by Hopkins (1983). Items included "I find work stimulating and challenging;" "I find a sense of worthwhile accomplishment in my work;" "I find opportunities for personal growth and development in my job;" "I like the kind of work I do very much;" and "I enjoy nearly all the things I do on my job very much." Each item was measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (coded 1) to strongly agree (coded 5). The five items were subsequently summed to create a scale that ranged from 12 to 25, with higher values representing higher levels of job satisfaction (M = 21.0; SD = 2.7; Cronbach's α = .859).

Burnout. While the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is the most commonly used instrument for clinical evaluations of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 1996), scholars have recently identified important psychometric and conceptual limitations of the MBI (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Pines, Aronson, & Kafry, 1981; Shinn, 1982). First, Demerouti and colleagues (2001) noted the psychometric limitations of the MBI in that items for each of three subscales (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment) are framed in the same direction. In other words, all items for the personal accomplishment subscale are positively phrased, while items for both the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales are all phrased in a negative manner. Scholars have argued that the unidirectional nature of the subscales can yield artificial factors solutions due to similarly phrased items clustering together (e.g., positive with positive/negative with

negative; Doty & Glick, 1998). Second, scholars have also argued that the emotional exhaustion subscale of the MBI is limited to assessing only the affective component of exhaustion, while neglecting to capture the physical and cognitive facets of exhaustion (Pines et al., 1981; Shinn, 1982).

The current study employed a viable alternative to the MBI known as the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti & Nachreiner, 1996; Demerouti, 1999; Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). The OLBI was originally developed in Germany (Demerouti, 1999; Demerouti & Nachreiner, 1996), and has since been translated and validated using English speaking samples (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). Indeed, studies have shown the English version of the OLBI to have adequate test-retest reliability, good internal consistency, and acceptable factorial, convergent, and discriminant validity (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). The OLBI addresses the primary limitations of the MBI through an equal distribution of 16 positively and negatively worded items that assesses burnout through two dimensions: *exhaustion* and *disengagement*.

According to Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, and Kantas (2003), *exhaustion* is conceptualized as a "…consequence of intensive physical, affective, and cognitive strain (i.e., as a long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job demands) (p. 14)." Additionally, *disengagement* refers to "…distancing oneself from one's work and experiencing negative attitudes toward the work objects, work content, or one's work in general" (Demerouti et al., 2003, p. 14). Exhaustion was comprised of eight items (four of which were reverse coded) that were scored using a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree (coded 1) to strongly disagree (coded 4). Example items

included “During my work, I often feel emotionally drained” and “After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.” Using principal axis factoring (PAF), the eight items were forced on to one factor with all items loading above the .40 criterion level (see Table 2; Field, 2013). The reliability analysis produced a Cronbach’s α of .734 for exhaustion, indicating acceptable internal consistency. Exhaustion scores were calculated by estimating the average across the eight items with higher scores representing greater levels of exhaustion (M = 2.2; SD = 0.4).

Table 2

Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Burnout: Exhaustion

Item	Factor Loadings
After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary[a]	**0.77**
During my work, I often feel emotionally drained[a]	**0.77**
After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities	**0.76**
After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better[a]	**0.69**
When I work, I usually feel energized	**0.59**
There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work[a]	**0.56**
Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well	**0.53**
I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well	**0.45**
Eigenvalue	3.39
% of variance	42.33
Cronbach’s α	.734

[a]Denotes reverse coded item

Disengagement was comprised of eight items that were scored using a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree (coded 1) to strongly disagree (coded 4). Example items included “Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work” and “It happens more and more that I talk about my work in a negative way.” A reliability analysis was also conducted to assess the internal consistency of the instrument. Using PAF, the eight items were forced on to one factor with all but one item

loading above the .40 criterion level (see Table 3; Field, 2013). The item "This is the only type of work I can imagine myself doing" did not load above the .40 criterion level and was subsequently omitted from the scale. The reliability analysis of the remaining seven items produced a Cronbach's α of .798, indicating acceptable internal consistency. Disengagement scores were calculated by estimating the average across the seven items with higher scores representing greater levels of disengagement (M = 2.0; SD = 0.4).

Table 3

Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Burnout: Disengagement

Item	Factor Loadings
I find my work to be a positive challenge	**0.73**
It happens more and more that I talk about my work in a negative way[a]	**0.70**
I always find new and interesting aspects in my work	**0.70**
I feel more and more engaged in my work	**0.69**
Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks[a]	**0.59**
Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work[a]	**0.49**
Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically[a]	**0.48**
This is the only type of work I can imagine myself doing	0.17
Eigenvalue	2.84
% of variance	35.52
Cronbach's α	.798

[a]Denotes reverse coded item

Turnover intentions. *Turnover intentions* were captured using an adapted version of Brough and Frame's (2004) turnover intention instrument, which was developed after conducting qualitative interviews with law enforcement executives and front line police officers. Turnover intentions were assessed using four questions, which included "How frequently have you seriously considered leaving your job in the past six months?" "How likely are you to leave your job in the next six months for another chief's job?" "How likely are you to leave your job in the next six months via retirement" and "How often do you actively look for jobs outside of law enforcement." Turnover

intentions were captured on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 'not at all' (coded 1) to 'very frequently' (coded 5). The reliability analysis produced a Cronbach's α of .737, indicating acceptable internal consistency. Thus, the four items were summed to create a turnover intentions scale ranging from 4 to 18, where higher scores indicated greater turnover intentions (M = 7.3; SD = 3.3).

Independent Variables

The current study included 23 independent variables that are compartmentalized into personal, operational, and organizational characteristics.

Personal characteristics

A total of eleven variables captured the individual demographics of participating police chiefs: age, race, level of education, marital status, military experience, hiring origin, family support, law enforcement tenure, supervisor tenure, length of time in current police department, and total chief tenure. Age was operationalized as a continuous variable that ranged from 29 to 74 years of age, with a median age of 53 (M = 52.8; SD =8.4). Due to the lack of variation in the sample, race was treated as a dichotomous measure (0 = non-White; 1 = White).[4] Level of education is an ordinal-level variables that refers to the highest level of education completed (1 = High school diploma or GED; 2 = Some college; 3 = Associates degree; 4 = Bachelor's degree; 5 = Graduate certificate; 6 = Master's degree; 7 = PhD; 8 = JD). Due to the lack of variation in the data, however, level of education was recoded as a dummy variable (0 = less than a

4 *Race* was originally captured as White (79.7%); Black or African-American (5.1%); Hispanic/Latino (13.7%); Asian (0.6%); Pacific Islander (0.3%); American Indian or Alaskan Native [0.3%]; or Bi-racial/Other (0.3%).

Bachelor's degree; 1 = more than a bachelor's degree).[5] Respondents were asked to indicate their current marital status (1 = married; 2 = single, never married; 3 = divorced; 4 = widowed; 5 = separated), yet due to lack of variation in the data, marital status was also recoded as a dummy variable (0 = not married; 1 = married).[6] Prior military experience was treated as a dichotomous variable (0 = no; 1 = yes).

Hiring origin refers to whether or not the respondent was appointed as chief of police in their current department internally (coded 0) or externally (e.g. hired outside of their current department; coded 1). *Family support* refers to the extent to which respondents feel supported by their family in helping them deal with issues confronted on the job (Cullen, Lemming, Link, & Wozniak, 1985). Family support was captured through a four-item family support measure developed by Cullen et al. (1985). Using a 5-point Likert-type scale, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) on their perceptions of being supported by their family. Two items – "There is really no one in my family I can talk to about my job," and "My significant other can't really help me much when I get tense about my job" were reverse coded (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). The reliability analysis for the four items revealed a Cronbach's α of .774, which is indicated good internal consistency (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Field, 2013). Moreover, the four items were subsequently summed to create a *family support* scale ranging from 4 to 20, where higher scores indicated a greater perception of support from their family (M = 16.7; SD = 2.4).

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5 *Level of education* was originally captured as High school diploma or GED (10.8%); some college (29.3%); Associates degree (12.4%); Bachelor's degree (19.7%); Graduate certificate (1%); Master's degree (25.2); PhD (0.6%); JD (1.0%).

6 *Marital status* was originally captured as married (85.7%); single, never married (1.9%); divorced (10.8%); widowed (0.6%); separated (1.0%).

Respondents were also asked to indicate their total length of time, in years and months, in (1) law enforcement; (2) as a supervisor; (3) as chief in their current department; and (4) as chief in another agency prior to their current chief's position. To standardize the units measuring tenure, each response was recoded and summed to compute a single continuous measure of tenure in years. Respondents reported both years and months in a specific position (e.g., 10 years, 3 months). Thus, the number of months were divided by 12 (the number of months in a year), and added to the number of years reported (e.g., 10 years and 3 months; (3/12) + 10 = 10.25 years). *Law enforcement tenure* is a continuous variable referring to the total number of years the respondent has been in law enforcement (M = 27.7; SD = 9.7). *Supervisor tenure* is a continuous variable depicting the total number of years the respondent has held a supervisory position (M = 17.1; SD = 10). *Chief tenure* refers to the total length of time, in years, as a police chief both in their current department and if they served as a chief in a former department combined (M = 8.1; SD = 7.5).

Operational Characteristics

Seven operational characteristics were included such as *family-work conflict*, *work-family conflict* (e.g., *strain-based work-family conflict* and *time-based work-family conflic*t), and *job stress* (e.g., leadership/supervision, insufficient resources, perceptual dedication, and operational stressors).

Family-work conflict. *Family-work conflict* refers to the extent to which family responsibilities interfere with respondents' work-related roles and responsibilities (Nohe, Meier, Sonntag, & Michel, 2015). Family-work conflict was operationalized using 5-items including: "My family and/or social life interfere with my job;" I sometimes have

to miss work due to pressing family/social issues or problems;" "Because of stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work;" "I'm often tired at work because of the things I do at home;" and "I feel that the demands placed upon me at work are unreasonable." Responses were captured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The reliability analysis for the five items revealed a Cronbach's α of .795, which indicates good internal consistency (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Field, 2013). The five items were summed to create a scale that ranged from 5 to 22, where higher scores indicate a greater family-work conflict (M = 9.5; SD = 3).

Work-family conflict. A 15-item work-family conflict instrument was used to examine the extent to which respondents' work-related duties and responsibilities interfere and create conflict with their family (Lambert, Hogan, Camp, & Ventura, 2006). To assess the unidimensionality of the instrument, a principal axis factor analysis with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was conducted on the 15-items (see Table 4). The analysis revealed a two-item factor structure that explained 58.72% of the total variance. A visual review of the scree plot showed the point of inflexion occurring after the third component, justifying the retention four factors.

Table 4

Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Work-Family Conflict (WFC)

Item	Rotated Factor Loadings: Strain-based WFC	Rotated Factor Loadings: Time-based WFC
Because of this job, I am often irritable at home	**0.98**	0.25
My job has a bad impact on my home life	**0.80**	-0.03
With all my work demands, sometimes I come home too stressed to do the things I enjoy	**0.68**	0.04
My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with work	**0.61**	-0.18
I am able to relax away from work, no matter what is happening in my job[a]	**0.55**	-0.05
My family/friends express unhappiness about the time I spend at work	**0.51**	-0.26
I am easily able to balance my work and home lives[a]	**0.50**	-0.33
I am able to leave my problems from work at work rather than bringing them home[a]	**0.46**	-0.09
I frequently argue with my partner/family members about my job	**0.44**	-0.04
My time off from work works well with my family members' schedules and/or my social needs[a]	-0.05	**-0.91**
My work schedule is stable enough to allow me to plan my family and/or social life[a]	-0.01	**-0.89**
My job allows me adequate time to be with my family[a]	-0.03	**-0.85**
I am able to participate in important family or social activities/events outside of work[a]	0.04	**-0.75**
My work allows me to still have the energy to enjoy my family and/or social life	0.24	**-0.62**
I frequently have to work overtime when I don't want to[a]	0.26	**-0.37**
Eigenvalues	7.11	1.69
% of variance	47.43	11.29
Cronbach's α	.872	.896
Total Variance	58.72%	

[a]Denotes reverse coded item

The first construct was identified as *Strain-based work-family conflict (WFC),* which accounted for 47.43% of the variance (λ = 7.11; loadings range: .44-.98). *Strain-based WFC* occurs when "…the demands and tensions from work negatively impact the

quality of a worker's home life" (Lambert et al., 2006, p. 372). Strain-based WFC was captured through nine items that were measured using a five point Likert-type scale that ranged from strongly disagree (coded 1) to strongly agree (coded 5). Three out of the nine items were reverse coded and included statements such as "Because of this job, I am often irritable at home;" and "I am able to leave my problems from work at work rather than bringing them home (reverse coded). Moreover, the nine items were summed to create a *strain-based work-family conflict* scale that ranged from 9 - 42, where higher scores indicated a greater strain on the respondents' families as a result of the demands and tensions from work (M = 22.5; SD = 6.2; Cronbach's α = .872).

Time-based work-family conflict refers to conflict within the family resulting from the respondent not spending enough time with the family due to workplace demands (Lambert et al., 2006). Time-based work-family conflict was captured using six items that were measured on a five point-Likert types scale ranging from strongly disagree (coded 1) to strongly agree (coded 5). Five out of the six items were reverse coded and included statements such as "My job allows me adequate time to be with my family (reverse coded);" and "I frequently have to work overtime when I don't want to". The reliability analysis for the five items revealed a Cronbach's α of .896, which indicates acceptable criteria for good internal consistency (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Field, 2013). Moreover, the six items were subsequently summed to create a *time-based work-family conflict* scale that ranged from 6 to 30, where higher scores indicated a greater time-based work-family conflict (M = 14.4; SD = 4.7).

Job stress. Job stress was assessed through McCreary and Thompson's (2013) Organizational Police Stress Questionnaire (PSQ-Org). The PSQ-Org is a 20-item

measure that captures the extent to which a diverse array of organizational facets increase stress levels among police officers. Responses to each question were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*no stress at all*) to 7 (*a lot of stress*). To assess the unidimensionality of the instrument, a principal axis factor analysis with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was conducted on the 20-items. The analysis revealed a four-item factor structure that explained 61.0% of the total variance. A visual review of the scree plot showed the point of inflexion occurring after the fifth component, justifying the retention four factors.

Table 5 shows the factor loadings after rotation. The first factor was comprised of eight items that collectively relate to organizational stressors derived from dealing with *leadership/supervision* (e.g., dealing with co-workers; dealing with supervisors/command staff; leaders over-emphasizing the negatives). *Leadership/supervision* accounted for 42% of the variance ($\lambda = 8.39$; loadings range: .37-.78), and the eight items were summed to create a scale that ranged from 7 to 42, with higher values representing higher levels of stress from dealing with leadership/supervision-related issues ($M = 20.3$; SD = 7.8; Cronbach's $\alpha = .853$). Factor two was comprised of two items that related to stress from dealing with *insufficient resources* (e.g., inadequate equipment and lack of resources). *Insufficient resources* accounted for 6.75% of the variance ($\lambda = 1.35$; loadings range: .69 - .82), and the two items were summed to create a scale that ranged from 2 to 14, with higher values representing higher levels of stress from working with insufficient resources ($M = 7.3$; SD = 3.4; Cronbach's $\alpha = .820$).

Six items clustered together to form the third factor, which was identified as *operational stressors*. *Operational stressors* was comprised of six items that collectively

associate with duties and responsibilities inherent to police leadership roles including (1) bureaucratic red tape; (2) excessive administrative duties; (3) constant changes in policy/legislation; (4) staff shortages; (5) too much computer work; and (6) feelings of having to prove oneself. Operational stressors accounted for 6.4% of the variance (λ = 1.28; loadings range: .41-.72), and the five items were summed to create a scale that ranged from 6 to 41, with higher values representing higher levels of stress from dealing with operational stressors (M = 20.7; SD = 7.5; Cronbach's α = .852).

Table 5

Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Job Stress

	Rotated Factor Loadings			
	Leadership	Resources	Operational	Dedication
Inconsistent leadership style	**0.78**	0.02	-0.03	-0.05
Dealing with supervisors/command staff	**0.75**	-0.06	-0.06	0.03
Leaders over-emphasizing the negatives (e.g., supervisor evaluations, public complaints)	**0.73**	0.03	0.10	0.12
Unequal sharing of work responsibilities	**0.54**	0.22	-0.20	-0.07
The feeling that different rules apply to different people (e.g., favoritism)	**0.52**	0.12	-0.06	-0.06
Dealing with co-workers	**0.51**	0.04	-0.13	-0.13
The need to be accountable for doing your job	**0.42**	0.09	-0.01	0.21
Internal investigations	**0.37**	-0.12	-0.10	0.32
Inadequate equipment	0.05	**0.82**	0.06	0.17
Lack of resources	0.16	**0.69**	-0.16	-0.08
Excessive administrative duties	0.03	0.04	**-0.72**	-0.08
Bureaucratic red tape	0.11	0.09	**-0.66**	-0.01
Too much computer work	0.09	-0.13	**-0.65**	0.08
staff shortages	-0.03	0.30	**-0.61**	-0.08
Constant changes in policy/legislation	0.02	0.00	**-0.60**	0.19
perceived pressure to volunteer free time	0.02	0.01	**-0.45**	**0.42**
Feeling you always have to prove yourself to the organization	0.36	-0.03	**-0.41**	0.01
Dealing with the court system	-0.02	0.24	-0.15	**0.58**
If you are sick or injured, your co-workers seem to look down on you	0.40	0.07	0.03	**0.46**
Lack of training on new equipment	0.13	0.22	-0.19	0.34
Eigenvalues	8.39	1.35	1.28	1.17
% of variance	41.96	6.75	6.40	5.85
Cronbach's α	.853	.820	.718	.769
Total Variance	60.97%			

Finally, three items clustered together to form the fourth factor, which was termed *perceptual dedication*. *Perceptual dedication* refers to the stress officers experience from cultivating a positive perception among others that one is dedicated, respected, and willing to execute their responsibilities to the fullest. Items included "if you are sick or injured, your coworkers seem to look down on you;" "dealing with the court system;" and "perceived pressure to volunteer free time." Perceptual dedication explained 5.85% of the variance ($\lambda = 1.17$; loadings range: .42 - .58). The three items were summed to create a scale that ranged from 3 to 18, with higher values representing higher levels of stress from cultivating a positive image of dedication and commitment ($M = 7.2$; SD = 3.4; Cronbach's $\alpha = .769$).

Organizational Characteristics

A total of five structural and perceptual organizational stressors were included, such as *collegial support*, *organizational commitment*, *organization size*, *agency type*, and *jurisdiction*.

Collegial support. *Collegial support* is a continuous measure that reflects the extent to which respondents' feel supported by their coworkers (Haines, Hurlbert, & Zimmer, 1991). Collegial support was measured using a six-item instrument developed by Haines and colleagues (1991). Using a 5-point Likert-type scale, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) on their perceptions of being supported by their colleagues. Items in the scale included "I usually try to get along very well with my coworkers;" "The people I work with are helpful to me in getting my job done;" "I know I can get help from my coworkers when I need it;" The people I work with are competent;" "My coworkers respect my work and

abilities." One item – "Coworkers criticize my work to others" was reverse coded (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). The reliability analysis for the six items revealed a Cronbach's α of .745, which falls within an acceptable range for good reliability (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Field, 2013). The six items were summed to create a *collegial support* scale that ranged from 14 to 30, where higher scores indicated a greater perception of support from their coworkers (M = 25; SD = 2.8).

Organizational commitment. According to Mowday et al. (1979), organizational commitment refers to "…the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 4). Organizational commitment was captured through Davis and Smith's (1991, pp. 468 - 469) Organizational Commitment Scale, which is a 6-item instrument designed to reflect: (1) one's "…willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization;" (2) one's "…belief in an acceptance of the organization's goals and values;" and (2) one's "…desire to maintain membership in the organization". Each item was captured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (coded 1) to strongly agree (coded 5).

To assess the dimensionality of the instrument, a principal axis factor analysis was conducted on the six-items. The analysis revealed a single-item factor structure that explained approximately 34.14% of the total variance (λ = 2.05; loadings range: .47 - .94). Three out of the six items loaded above the .40 criterion level (see Table 6). Although the initial reliability analysis demonstrated poor internal consistency between the three items (α = .573), the Cronbach's α was improved by dropping the item "I would turn down another job for more pay in order to stay with my organization" from the scale. Thus, *organizational commitment* was captured through two items: "I am proud to be

working for my organization" and "I find that my values and my organization's values are very similar." The two items were summed to create a scale that ranged from two to 10 where higher scores indicated higher degrees of organizational commitment (M = 8.7; SD = 1.1; Chronbach's α = .640).

Table 6

Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Organizational Commitment

Item	Factor Loadings
I am proud to be working for my organization	**0.94**
I find that my values and my organization's values are very similar	**0.49**
I would turn down another job for more pay in order to stay with my organization	**0.47**
I am willing to work harder than I have to in order to help my organization succeed	0.35
I would take almost any job within my agency to keep working for my current organization	0.22
I feel very little loyalty to my organization	0.19
Eigenvalue	2.05
% of variance	34.14
Cronbach's α	.640

Organizational size. Police organizational researchers generally operationalize *organizational size* as the total number of full-time sworn and non-sworn personnel (King, 1999; Maguire, 2003). Respondents were asked to indicate the total number of full- and part-time (1) actual (not authorized) sworn personnel with general arrest powers; (2) actual (not-authorized) officers without general arrest powers; and (3) number of actual (not-authorized) non-sworn personnel. For the current study, *organizational size* was operationalized as the total number of actual sworn and non-sworn personnel with and without general arrest powers. *Organizational size* was treated as a continuous variable ranging from 0 to 2,999 full-time personnel, with a median of 13 (M = 51.9; SD = 189.1).

Agency type. Agency type was treated as a categorical variable that ecompassess the type of agency respondents' represented (1 = local/municipal; 2 = independent school district [ISD]; 3 = special district [university, parks, wildlife, airport, port]).

Jurisdiction. Jurisdiction is self-report measure describing the metropolitan statistical area in which the respondent's agency serves (1 = urban; 2 = suburban; 3 = rural).

Missing Data

Missing data was addressed through three stages. First, a missing value analysis was conducted using SPSS 21 to examine the pattern and scope of missing data. Findings indicated that 0.38% of the values were missing across all variables in a non-monotone pattern. In all, however, 24% (n = 76) of the 316 cases had missing information on at least one variable. Second, data were screened to determine whether multiple imputation was appropriate. Multiple imputation is a common method for estimating missing values. Multiple imputation (MI) is a powerful, iterative process that uses existing values of other variables to estimate multiple predicted values that are subsequently substituted for the missing values (Allison, 2002; Rubin, 1996).

For multiple imputation to succeed, Hertel (1976) recommends that each variable should have no more than 15% missing information. Military status had the most missing values at 5.4%, which is well below the 15% threshold. Moreover, findings from the Little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) test revealed that there were no significant differences between the missing and non-missing values for any of the included variables (χ^2[2,981]= 3,702.04, p = .120; Little, 1988). The non-significant findings indicates that the data are MCAR, whereby dropping missing cases via listwise

deletion would not bias the sample (Garson, 2015). Listwise deletion, however, would drop 74 cases due to missing values, which may impact statistical power and explained variance in the multivariate models. As a result, missing data were multiply imputed in SPSS using the Markov Chain Monte Carlo method.

Through the Markov Chain Monte Carlo method (Garson, 2015), the MI process generates five copies of completed datasets, each with a different imputation estimate for the missing values (Rubin, 1996). Regression models were estimated using each imputed dataset and were interpreted using Rubin's (1996) recommendations to combine the parameter estimates and standard errors into a single pooled average

Analytic Strategy

Analysis for the current study were carried out through multiple steps. First, univariate analyses were conducted to assess the overall distribution of the four outcome variables, along with each personal, operational, and organizational characteristic. Second, a series of bivariate analyses, such as Pearson's r correlations and independent samples *t*-tests, were carried out to identify significant relationships between the personal and work-related factors associated with the four outcome variables. Finally, given the continuous nature of the dependent variables, ordinary least squares (OLS) regression models were estimated to identify and isolate the key factors responsible for influencing the professional quality of life among Texas police chiefs.

To examine the unique effects of the personal and work-related factors associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions, multivariate analyses were conducted using additive models. For each dependent variable, three separate models were estimated with the first model including only the personal characteristics, while the

second model adds the operational characteristics. The third model represents the full model with all three categories of predictors including the organizational characteristics. As assessed through changes in the explained variance, along with potential changes in the significance and degrees of the unstandardized coefficients, this strategy allows for comparisons to be made across models to isolate the key types of predictors (i.e., personal, operational, or organizational factors) that have the most influence.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSES & RESULTS

This chapter presents the results from the statistical analyses examining the effect of personal, operational, and organizational factors associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions among Texas police chiefs. This chapter begins with an overview of the sample demographics and bivariate analyses and concludes with the findings from the multivariate analyses for the four dependent variables.

Sample Demographics

Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 7. Overall, respondents were predominantly white (79.7%), married (85.7%), with a median age of 53 (M = 52.8, SD = 8.4). Less than half of the chiefs held a bachelor's degree or higher (47.3%), nearly one in five had previous military experience (23.2%), and 55.1% were hired externally. Respondents served, on average, 28 years in law enforcement (M = 27.7, SD = 9.7), with 17 of the 28 years as a supervisor (M = 17.1, SD = 10). Respondents varied in their experience as chief, with tenures ranging from three months to 32 years. Collectively, respondents served, on average, a total of eight years as chief in a current or former department (M = 8.1, SD = 7.5). The majority of respondents were chiefs from municipal agencies (70.5%) that were located in rural areas (41%). Additionally, chiefs represented agencies of all sizes ranging from zero full-time employees to 810. The median organization size was 13 (M = 42.5, SD = 189.1).

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics (N = 315)

Variables & Attributes	*M* or % (Freq.)	SD	Median	Min/Max	α
Dependent Variables					
Job satisfaction	21.0	2.7	20.0	13 – 25	.859
Burnout: Exhaustion	2.2	0.4	2.1	1 – 3.25	.734
Burnout: Disengagement	2.0	0.4	2.0	1 – 3.14	.798
Turnover intentions	7.3	3.3	6.0	4 – 17	.737
Personal Characteristics					
Age	52.8	8.4	53.0	29 – 74	–
Race	–	–	–	0 – 1	–
Non-White	20.3% (63.8)	–	–	–	–
White	79.7% (251.2)	–	–	–	–
Level of education		–	–	0 – 1	–
Less than a Bachelor's degree	52.7% (166.0)	–	–	–	–
Bachelor's degree or higher	47.3% (149.0)	–	–	–	–
Marital status		–	–	0 – 1	–
Not married	14.3% (45.2)	–	–	–	–
Married	85.7% (269.8)	–	–	–	–
Military experience		–	–	0 – 1	–
No	76.8% (241.8)	–	–	–	–
Yes	23.2% (73.2)	–	–	–	–
Hiring origin		–	–	0 – 1	–
Inside of department	44.9% (141.4)	–	–	–	–
Outside of department	55.1% (173.6)	–	–	–	–
Family support	16.8	2.4	17.0	10 – 20	.774
Law enforcement tenure (years)	27.7	9.7	27.6	2 – 51.2	–
Supervisor tenure (in years)	17.1	10.0	15.2	1 – 42.8	–
Length of time in current PD	11.3	10.6	7.1	0.25 – 49.2	–
Total chief tenure (in years)	8.1	7.5	6.0	0.25 – 32.4	–
Operational Characteristics					
Family-work conflict	9.5	3.0	10.0	5 – 18	.795
Strain-based work-family conflict	22.5	6.2	22.0	9 – 42	.872
Time-based work-family conflict	14.4	4.7	14.0	6 – 29	.896
Job stress: Leadership/supervision	23.0	7.8	23.0	8 – 46	.853
Job stress: Insufficient resources	7.3	3.4	7.0	2 – 14	.820
Job stress: Perceptual dedication	7.2	3.4	7.0	3 – 18	.718
Job stress: Operational stressors	20.7	7.5	20.0	6 – 41	.852
Organizational Characteristics					
Collegial support	25.1	2.8	25.0	17 – 30	.745
Organizational commitment	8.7	1.1	9.0	6 – 10	.640
Organization size	42.5	189.1	13.0	0 – 810	–

(continued)

Variables & Attributes	*M* or % (Freq.)	SD	Median	Min/Max	α
Agency type	–	–	–	1 – 3	–
Municipal	70.5% (222.0)	–	–	–	–
Independent school district (ISD)	14.3% (45.0)	–	–	–	–
Special district (university, parks, airport)	15.2% (48.0)	–	–	–	–
Jurisdiction	–	–	–	1 – 3	–
Urban	30.3% (95.4)	–	–	–	–
Suburban	28.6% (90.0)	–	–	–	–
Rural	41.1% (129.6)	–	–	–	–

In regards to the dependent variables, chiefs scored slightly above the midpoint on the job satisfaction measure, indicating moderate to high levels of job satisfaction (M = 21.0, SD = 2.7). For burnout, chiefs scored slightly above the midpoint for exhaustion (M = 2.2, SD = 0.4) and right at the midpoint for disengagement (M = 2.0, SD = 0.4). Turnover scores ranged from four to 17 with a median of 6.0 (M = 7.3, SD = 3.3). Collectively, chiefs reported high levels of job satisfaction and low to moderate levels of exhaustion, disengagement, and intentions to leave their profession.

Bivariate Analyses

Bivariate analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between the personal, operational, and organizational factors significantly associated with each of the four dependent variables. The full bivariate correlation matrix is presented in Table 8 and the results of the independent samples *t*-tests are presented in Table 9.

Table 8

Bivariate Correlations Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Job satisfaction	1											
2.Exhaustion	-.49**	1										
3.Disengagement	-.66**	.65*	1									
4.Turnover intentions	-.29**	.32*	.35*	1								
5.White	-.04	.08	.12*	-.04	1							
6.Bachelor's or higher	.07	-.03	-.09†	.04	.08	1						
7.Married	-.04	.07	.10†	-.04	.06	.03	1					
8.Military experience	.02	-.06	-.10†	-.01	.01	-.04	-.02	1				
9.External hire	.06	-.09	-.15*	.04	.07	.27*	-.07	.12*	1			
10.Age	.05	-.13*	-.11*	.02	.09†	.17*	.03	.11†	.14**	1		
11.Family support	.29**	-.37*	-.26*	-.07	-.08	.08	.07	-.05	.09	.02	1	
12.LE tenure	.02	-.04	-.05	.06	.08	.25*	.07	.01	.15**	.78*	.06	1
13. Supervisor tenure	-.01	-.09	-.03	.09†	.08	.37*	.13**	-.03	.12**	.58*	.09	.70*
14.Department tenure	-.08	.03	.07	-.05	.03	-.09	.05	-.15**	-.52*	.23*	.01	.29*
15.Chief tenure	.00	-.12*	.01	-.03	.05	.07	.02	-.09	.06	.43*	.06	.45*
16.Family-work conflict	-.24**	.47**	.35*	.16**	.07	-.02	.08	.01	.01	-.03	-.36**	-.01
17.WFC: Strain	-.28**	.66**	.39*	.24**	.15**	-.06	.04	.03	-.06	-.15*	-.39**	-.12*
18.WFC: Time	-.16**	.48**	.14*	.14*	.14*	.00	-.02	.04	-.02	-.06	-.28**	-.05
19.Stress: Leadership	-.11*	.38**	.28**	.30**	-.08	.03	.06	.00	-.16**	-.14*	-.20**	-.03
20.Stress: Resources	-.13*	.30**	.20**	.26**	.01	-.08	.03	.04	.05	-.04	-.11†	-.06
21.Stress: Percept dedic.	-.12*	.35**	.21**	.18**	-.04	-.12*	.09	-.05	-.13*	-.14*	-.24**	-.11*
22.Stress: operational	-.15**	.47**	.25**	.30**	.02	-.01	.02	.10†	-.12*	-.09†	-.20**	-.03
23.Collegial support	.26*	-.37**	-.33**	-.21**	.04	-.01	-.02	.00	.05	.07	.30**	.04
24.Org. commitment	.43*	-.32**	-.37**	-.28**	-.03	.03	-.03	-.04	-.04	.02	.31**	.05
25.Organization size	.05	-.09	-.09†	-.04	-.08	.18**	.06	.04	.03	.04	.05	.08

(continued)

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
1.Job satisfaction											
2.Exhaustion											
3.Disengagement											
4.Turnover intentions											
5.White											
6.Bachelor's or higher											
7.Married											
8.Military experience											
9.External hire											
10.Age											
11.Family support											
12.Law enforcement tenure											
13. Supervisor tenure	1										
14.Department tenure	.36**	1									
15.Chief tenure	.53**	.44**	1								
16.Family-work conflict	-.03	-.03	-.01	1							
17.WFC: Strain	-.11*	-.01	-.09	.56**	1						
18.WFC: Time	-.13*	-.10	-.12*	.37**	.64**	1					
19.Stress: Leadership	-.03	.03	-.06	.31**	.37**	.25**	1				
20.Stress: Resources	-.14**	-.16**	-.15**	.24**	.23**	.23**	.54**	1			
21.Stress: Percept dedication	-.13*	-.02	-.13*	.30**	.35**	.34**	.59**	.47**	1		
22.Stress: operational	-.09	-.01	-.13*	.32**	.42**	.41**	.69**	.54**	.59**	1	
23.Collegial support	.08	.07	.06	-.29**	-.31**	-.23**	-.38**	-.34**	-.28**	-.27**	1
24.Organizational commitment	.05	.11†	.05	-.22**	-.22**	-.14*	-.15**	-.25**	-.10†	-.16**	.48**
25.Organization size	.11*	.04	.00	-.02	.12*	.12*	.07	-.01	.05	.10†	.07

(continued)

	24	25
26.Job satisfaction		
27.Exhaustion		
28.Disengagement		
29.Turnover intentions		
30.White		
31.Bachelor's or higher		
32.Married		
33.Military experience		
34.External hire		
35.Age		
36.Family support		
37.Law enforcement tenure		
38. Supervisor tenure		
39.Department tenure		
40.Chief tenure		
41.Family-work conflict		
42.WFC: Strain		
43.WFC: Time		
44.Stress: Leadership		
45.Stress: Resources		
46.Stress: Percept dedication		
47.Stress: operational		
48.Collegial support		
49.Organizational commitment	1	
50.Organization size	.08	1

Table 9

Group Difference Test Statistics

	Job Satisfaction		Burnout: Exhaustion		Burnout: Disengagement		Turnover intentions	
	t-test (df)	p	*t*-test (df)	p	*t*-test (df)	p	*t*-test (df)	p
Race	0.78 (313)	.44	-1.37 (313)	.17	-2.18 (313)	.03*	0.66 (83.98)	.50
Education	-1.32 (313)	.19	0.45 (313)	.65	1.63 (313)	.10†	-0.64 (313)	.52
Marital status	0.63 (313)	.53	-1.23 (313)	.22	-1.81 (313)	.07†	0.77 (313)	.44
Military	-0.35 (313)	.73	0.98 (313)	.33	1.70 (313)	.09†	0.23 (313)	.82
Hiring origin	-1.02 (313)	.31	1.56 (313)	.12	2.56 (313)	.01**	-0.67 (313)	.50
Agency type								
Municipal	-1.91 (313)	.06†	-0.13 (148.7)	.90	0.24 (149.9)	.81	0.68 (313)	.50
ISD	0.85 (313)	.39	0.44 (313)	.66	0.59 (313)	.56	-0.00 (313)	.99
Special district	1.59 (313)	.11	-0.27 (313)	.79	-0.90 (313)	.37	-0.86 (313)	.39
Jurisdiction								
Urban	-0.09 (313)	.93	-0.85 (313)	.40	-0.24 (313)	.81	-0.40 (313)	.69
Suburban	-1.05 (313)	.24	0.19 (313)	.85	1.17 (313)	.24	-0.53 (313)	.59
Rural	1.06 (313)	.29	0.62 (313)	.53	-0.83 (313)	.41	0.88 (313)	.39

Job satisfaction. Bivariate analyses indicated that personal, operational, and organizational factors were significantly associated with JS. For personal characteristics, family support was the only factor demonstrating a significant and positive correlation with JS ($r = .29$, $p < .01$). All seven operational characteristics were significant and negatively correlated with JS. Collegial support ($r = .26$, $p < .05$) and organizational commitment ($r = .43$, $p < .05$) were the only two organizational characteristics that were significant and positively correlated with JS. Agency type, however, was marginally significant, suggesting that chiefs of municipal agencies ($M = 21.1$, SD = 2.6) had higher JS scores than chiefs of ISD ($M = 20.6$, SD = 3.2) or special district agencies ($M = 20.4$, SD 2.4); $t[313] = -1.91$, $p = .06$). Finally, exhaustion ($r = -.49$, $p < .01$), disengagement ($r = -.66$, $p < .01$), and turnover intentions ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$) all demonstrated a significant negative correlation with JS.

Burnout: Exhaustion. Bivariate analyses indicated that personal, operational, and organizational factors were significantly associated with exhaustion. Only three personal characteristics were significantly correlated with exhaustion. Age ($r = -.13$, $p < .05$) and chief tenure ($r = -.12$, $p < .05$) demonstrated a significant but small negative linear relationship with JS, while family support had a significant moderate negative relationship with JS ($r = -.37$, $p < .05$). All seven operational factors had a significant moderate-to-large positive relationship with exhaustion. Collegial support ($r = -.37$, $p < .01$) and organizational commitment ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$) were the only two organizational characteristics that were significant and negatively correlated with exhaustion. Finally, job satisfaction ($r = -.49$, $p < .01$) had a significant negative association with exhaustion,

while disengagement (r = .65, p < .05) and turnover intentions (r =.32, p < .05) were significant and positively correlation with exhaustion.

Burnout: Disengagement. Bivariate analyses indicated that personal, operational, and organizational factors were significantly associated with disengagement. For personal characteristics, race, hiring origin, age, and family support were significantly correlated with disengagement. Results from a series of independent samples *t*-tests indicated that White chiefs had significantly higher disengagement scores (M = 2.1, SD = .39) than chiefs of color (M = 1.95, SD = .35; t[313] = -2.18, p = .03). Chiefs who were hired internally also had higher disengagement scores (M = 2.1, SD = .37) than chiefs who were appointed from an outside agency (M = 1.98, SD = .39; t[313] = 2.56, p = .01). Age (r = -.13, p < .05) and family support (r = -.37, p < .05) were both significant and negatively correlated with disengagement. Education, martial status, and military status were all marginally significant, which suggests that disengagement scores were higher among chiefs who were married ($M_{married}$ = 2.05, SD = .38 vs. $M_{not\ married}$ = 1.94, SD = .39, p = .07), less educated ($M_{less\ than\ a\ Bachelors\ degree}$ = 2.07, SD = .35 vs. $M_{Bachelor's\ degree\ or\ higher}$= 2.0, SD = .39, p = .10), and had no prior military experience ($M_{no\ military}$ = 2.06, SD = .36 vs. $M_{military}$ = 1.97, SD = .36, p = .09).

Similar to exhaustion, all seven operational factors were significant and positively correlated with disengagement. Regarding organizational factors, collegial support (r = -.33, p < .01) and organizational commitment (r = -.37, p < .01) demonstrated a significant and moderate negative linear relationship with disengagement. Finally, job satisfaction (r = -.66, p < .01), exhaustion (r = .65, p < .05), and turnover intentions (r =

.35, $p < .05$) all had a significant moderate-to-large positive relationship with disengagement.

Turnover intentions. Bivariate analyses revealed that none of the personal characteristics were significantly associated with turnover intentions. All seven operational factors, however, were significantly correlated with turnover intentions. Collegial support ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$) and organizational commitment ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$) were the only two organizational factors that were significant at the bivariate level. Both factors demonstrating a small negative relationship with turnover intentions. Finally, job satisfaction ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$) was significant and demonstrated a small-to-moderate negative correlation with turnover intentions, while exhaustion ($r = .32$, $p < .05$) and disengagement ($r = .35$, $p < .05$) were significant and had a moderate positive association with turnover intention.

Multivariate Analyses

Job satisfaction. Table 10 presents the results of the three OLS regression models estimating the effects of personal, operational, and organizational factors on JS. Model 1 serves as the baseline model and only includes the personal characteristics of the chiefs. Overall, personal characteristics accounted for approximately 7.5% of the explained variance in JS ($F[10, 304] = 3.16$, $p < .001$).[7] Chiefs reporting greater family support was the only significant personal characteristic associated with higher JS scores ($b = .35$, $p <$

[7] Model diagnostics for each of the 12 models revealed no issues with skewness or kurtosis, as estimates for each dependent variable fell within the appropriate range and did not exceed thresholds of ±2.0 and 7.0, respectively (Curran et al. 1996). A review of the bivariate correlations and collinearity diagnostics indicated that multicollinearity was not an issue. The variance inflation factor values (VIF) were all well below 10 and tolerance statistics were all above 0.2 for all four dependent variables (Field 2013). Finally, model bias for normality, influential outliers, and heteroskedasticity was assessed through residual statistics and a review of residual plots (Field 2013).

.001). While age (b = 0.04, p = .09) was positively associated with JS, the relationship was only marginally significant.

The inclusion of the operational characteristics in Model 2 moderately increased the model's overall predictive strength, as evidenced by the adjusted R^2 (.095; F[16, 298] = 2.99, p <.001). Despite being significant at the bivariate level, findings indicated that none of the six operational characteristics were significantly associated with JS in the multivariate models. Even with the addition of the operational factors, however, greater family support (b = .25, p < .001) continued to be significantly associated with higher JS scores.

Model 3 represents the full model, which regressed the personal, operational, and organizational characteristics on JS scores. The inclusion of the organizational characteristics dramatically increased the predictive strength of the model, as it accounted for approximately 22.5% of the explained variance on JS (F[20, 294] = 5.56, p <.001). In the full model, only two organizational characteristics were significantly associated with JS at the p <. 05 level. Indeed, the results indicated that higher JS scores were associated with greater organizational commitment (b = .88, p < .001) and being a chief of a larger police department (b = .55, p < .05). Greater family support (b = .12, p = .08), having a shorter tenure in their current department (b = -.03, p = .09), and lower strain-based WFC (b = -.06, p = .08), were also associated with higher JS scores, yet the relationships were only moderately significant. What is interesting in the full model is that family support went from being significant at the p <. 05 level in Model 2 to being marginally significant at the p <.10 level. Inconsistent with the first two models, chiefs' tenure in their current department and strain-based WFC emerged as marginally significant as well. This

suggests that organizational characteristics, particularly organizational commitment and agency type, potentially mediates, albeit partially, the effects of personal and operational characteristics on JS.

Table 10

OLS Regression Results: Personal and Work-Related Factors Associated with Job Satisfaction (N = 315)

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	SE	β	*b*	SE	β	*b*	SE	β
Personal Characteristics									
White	-.13	.37	-.02	.02	.37	.00	-.09	0.36	-0.01
Bachelor's Degree or higher	.37	.33	.07	.35	.33	.07	.21	0.33	0.04
Married	-.35	.42	-.05	-.22	.43	-.03	-.14	0.39	-0.02
Military experience	.07	.36	.01	.12	.36	.02	.25	0.34	0.04
External hire	-.16	.40	-.03	-.11	.40	-.02	-.08	0.37	-0.01
Age	.04	.02	.12†	.03	.02	.10	.03	0.02	0.10
Family support	.35	.07	.30***	.25	.07	.22***	.12	0.07	0.11†
Supervisor tenure (in years)	-.02	.02	-.07	-.02	.02	-.08	-.03	0.02	-0.13
Tenure in current department	-.02	.02	-.07	-.02	.02	-.08	-.03	0.02	-0.13†
Chief tenure (log years)	-.15	.18	-.06	-.13	.18	-.05	-.09	0.16	-0.04
Operational Characteristics									
Family-work conflict				-.07	.06	-.08	-0.03	0.06	-0.03
Strain-based work-family conflict				-.06	.04	-.13	-0.06	0.03	-0.14†
Time-based work-family conflict				.00	.04	.00	-0.01	0.04	-0.01
Job stress: Resources				-.08	.05	-.10	0.00	0.05	0.00
Job stress: Perceptual dedication				.05	.06	.06	0.01	0.05	0.02
Job stress: Operational factors				.00	.03	-.01	-0.02	0.03	-0.04
Organizational Characteristics									
Collegial support							0.02	0.06	0.02
Organizational commitment							0.88	0.16	0.33***
Organization size (log)							0.55	0.27	0.14*
Municipal agency							0.49	0.32	0.08
F		3.16***			2.99***			5.56	
Adjusted R^2		.075			.095			.225	

†$p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Burnout: Exhaustion. Table 11 presents the results of the three OLS regression models estimating the effects of personal, operational, and organizational factors on exhaustion. Model 1 serves as the baseline model and only includes the personal characteristics of the chiefs. Overall, personal characteristics accounted for approximately 14.8% of the explained variance in exhaustion (F[10, 304] = 5.17, p <.001). Findings indicated that higher levels of exhaustion were significantly associated with being younger (b = -.01, p < .05) and having lower family support (b = -.07, p < .05). Being married was also associated with higher exhaustion scores, yet the relationship was only marginally significant (b = .12, p = .10).

The inclusion of the operational characteristics in Model 2 dramatically increased the model's overall predictive strength, as evidenced by the adjusted R^2 (.407; F[15, 299] = 14.48, p <.001). Three operational factors were significant and positively associated with exhaustion. Higher exhaustion scores were significantly associated with chiefs reporting greater family-work conflict (FWC; b = .03, p < .001), greater time-based WFC (b = .02, p < .001), and higher job stress from operational factors (b = .01, p < .001).[8] After the inclusion of the operational characteristics in Model 2, personal characteristics such as age (b = -.01, p < .05) and family support (b = -.03, p < .001) continued to be significant and negatively associated with exhaustion. Additionally, exhaustion scores were also associated with chiefs with no prior military experience (b = -.09, p = .06) and longer tenures in their current department (b = .01, p = .07), yet the relationships were only marginally significant.

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8 Strain-based WFC was omitted from the models due to multicollinearity issues with exhaustion.

The third OLS model represents the full model, which regressed the personal, operational, and organizational characteristics on exhaustion scores. The inclusion of the organizational factors in Model 3 increased the overall predictive strength of the model, as evidenced by the adjusted R^2 (.443; F[18, 296] = 14.05, p <.001). Findings indicated that higher levels of exhaustion were significantly associated with lower family support (b = -.03, p < .01), greater FWC (b = .03, p < .001), greater time-based WFC (b = .02, p < .001), greater stress from operational factors (b = .01, p < .001), and lower organizational commitment (b = -.07, p < .001). Additionally, having no prior military experience (b = -.09, p = .06), serving a longer tenure in their current department (b = .00, p = .08), and being a chief of a larger police department (b = 0.07, p = .06) were also associated with higher exhaustion scores, yet the relationships were only marginally significant. Factors such as race, education, marital status, hiring origin, age, supervisor tenure, chief tenure, job stress from resources or perceptual dedication, and collegial support were non-significant in the full model.

Table 11

OLS Regression Results: Personal and Work-Related Factors Associated with Burnout: Exhaustion (N = 315)

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	SE	β	*b*	SE	β	*b*	SE	β
Personal Characteristics									
White	.05	.06	.05	.00	.05	.00	.02	.05	.01
Bachelor's Degree or higher	.03	.05	.04	.01	.04	.01	-.02	.04	-.03
Married	.12	.06	.10†	.08	.05	.07	.07	.05	.05
Military experience	-.05	.06	-.05	-.09	.05	-.09†	-.09	.05	-.09†
External hire	.00	.06	.00	.04	.05	.04	.05	.05	.05
Age	-.01	.00	-.13*	-.01	.00	-.11*	.00	.00	-.09
Family support	-.07	.01	-.38***	-.03	.01	-.18***	-.03	.01	-.13**
Supervisor tenure (in years)	.00	.00	-.04	.00	.00	-.01	.00	.00	-.04
Tenure in current department	.00	.00	.07	.01	.00	.12†	.00	.00	.11†
Chief tenure (log years)	.01	.03	.02	-.01	.02	-.02	-.01	.02	-.01
Operational Characteristics									
Family-work conflict				.03	.01	.22***	.03	.01	.19***
Time-based WFC				.02	.01	.25***	.02	.00	.24***
Job stress: Resources				.01	.01	.08	.00	.01	.03
Job stress: Percept. dedication				-.01	.01	-.04	-.01	.01	-.04
Job stress: Operational factors				.01	.00	.24***	.01	.00	.24***
Organizational Characteristics									
Collegial support							-.01	.01	-.07
Organizational commitment							-.07	.02	-.17***
Organization size							.07	.03	.10†
F		5.17***			14.48***			14.05***	
Adjusted R^2		.148			.407			.443	

Note. WFC = 'Work-family conflict'; Percept. = 'perceptual dedication';
†$p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Burnout: Disengagement. Table 12 presents the results of the three OLS regression models estimating the effects of personal, operational, and organizational factors on disengagement. Model 1 serves as the baseline model and only includes the personal characteristics of the chiefs. Overall, personal characteristics accounted for approximately 11.8% of the explained variance in disengagement (F[10, 304] = 3.96, p <.001). Regarding personal characteristics, higher levels of disengagement were significantly associated with being white (b = .11, p < .05), younger (b = -.01, p < .01), having lower family support (b = -.04, p < .001), and serving a longer tenure as chief (b = .06, p < .01). Higher disengagement scores were also associated with being married (b = .10, p = .08), yet the relationship was only marginally significant.

The inclusion of the operational characteristics in Model 2 doubled the overall predictive strength of the model, as evidenced by the adjusted R^2 (.241; F[16, 298] = 6.88, p <.001). Three out of the seven operational characteristics were significantly associated with disengagement. Higher levels of disengagement were significantly associated with greater FWC (b = .02, p < .05), greater strain-based WFC (b = .02, p < .001), and lower time-based WFC (b = -.02, p < .01). For personal characteristics, while race (b = .10, p < .05) and chief tenure (b = .06, p < .01) continued to be significant in Model 2, findings revealed that chiefs who were hired internally (b = .06, p < .01) had higher disengagement scores compared to chiefs who were hired outside of the department. Family support (b = -.01, p = .07) and age (b = -.02, p = .08), continued to be negatively associated with disengagement, yet the relationships were marginally significant.

Model 3 represents the full model and estimates the effect of personal, operational, and organizational factors on the disengagement dimension of burnout. The addition of the organizational characteristics improved the overall predictive strength of the model, as evidenced by the adjusted R^2 (.304; F[19, 295] = 7.95, p <.001). Overall, higher disengagement scores were associated with being white (b = .10, p < .05), being hired internally (b = -.10, p < .05), serving longer tenures as chief (b = .06, p < .01), higher strain-based WFC (b = .02, p < .001), lower time-based WFC (b = -.02, p < .001), and lower organizational commitment (b = -.08, p < .001). Having no prior military experience (b = -.09, p = .06), being younger (b = -.01, p = .09), and greater FWC (b = .01, p = .08) were also associated with higher disengagement scores, yet the relationships were only marginally significant. Factors such as education, marital status, family support, supervisor tenure, tenure in their current department, job stress from resources, perceptual dedication, or operational factors, collegial support, and organizational size were non-significant.

Table 12

OLS Regression Results: Personal and Work-Related Factors Associated with Burnout: Disengagement (N = 315)

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	SE	β	*B*	SE	β	*b*	SE	β
Personal Characteristics									
White	.11	.05	.12*	.10	.05	.10*	.10	.05	.11*
Bachelor's Degree or higher	-.05	.05	-.07	-.04	.04	-.05	-.02	.04	-.03
Married	.10	.06	.10†	.05	.06	.05	.05	.05	.04
Military experience	-.07	.05	-.07	-.08	.05	-.09	-.09	.05	-.09†
External hire	-.09	.06	-.12	-.10	.05	-.13*	-.10	.05	-.13*
Age	-.01	.00	-.17**	-.01	.00	-.11†	-.01	.00	-.11†
Family support	-.04	.01	-.25***	-.02	.01	-.10†	.00	.01	-.03
Supervisor tenure (in years)	.00	.00	.04	.00	.00	.04	.00	.00	.06
Tenure in current department	.00	.00	-.05	.00	.00	-.07	.00	.00	-.03
Chief tenure (log years)	.06	.03	.17**	.06	.02	.16**	.06	.02	.15**
Operational Characteristics									
Family-work conflict				.02	.01	.14*	.01	.01	.10†
Strain-based WFC				.02	.01	.32***	.02	.01	.31***
Time-based WFC				-.02	.01	-.21**	-.02	.01	-.21***
Job stress: Resources				.01	.01	.12†	.00	.01	.03
Job stress: Percept. dedication				.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.01
Job stress: Operational factors				.00	.00	.07	.01	.00	.10
Organizational Characteristics									
Collegial support							-.01	.01	-.09
Organizational commitment							-.08	.02	-.22***
Organization size							-.05	.04	-.09
F		3.96***			6.88***			7.95***	
Adjusted R^2		.118			.241			.304	

Note. WFC = 'Work-family conflict'; Percept. = 'perceptual dedication'

†$p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

Turnover intentions. Table 13 presents the results of the three OLS regression models estimating the effects of personal, operational, and organizational factors on turnover intentions. Model 1 includes the personal characteristics of the chiefs. Model 1 was not significant (F[10, 304] = 0.58, p = .358), suggesting that the model with the personal characteristics of chiefs was not significantly better at predicting turnover intentions than a model with no predictors. Model 2 estimated the effects of personal and operational characteristics on turnover intentions and accounted for approximately 13.2% of the explained variance in turnover intentions (F[16, 298] = 3.23, p <.001). Greater turnover intentions were associated with longer tenures as a supervisor (b = .06, p < .01), shorter tenures in a chiefs' current department (b = -.05, p < .05), greater strain-based WFC (b = .13, p < .01), greater job stress from lack of resources (b = .14, p < .05), and greater job stress from operational factors (b = .09, p < .21).

Model 3 regresses the full spectrum of personal, operational, and organizational factors on chiefs' turnover intentions. The addition of the organizational factors increased the predictive strength further, as evidence by the adjusted R^2 (.157; F[19, 295] = 3.48, p <.001). Having a longer tenure as a supervisor (b = .07, p < .01) was the only significant personal characteristics associated greater turnover intentions. Marital status (b = -.82, p = .10) also had a significant negative association with turnover intentions, yet the relationship was only marginally significant. For operational factors, greater strain-based WFC (b = .13, p < .01) and greater stress from operational factors (b = .10, p < .01) were significant and positively associated with turnover intentions.

Table 13

OLS Regression Results: Personal and Work-Related Factors Associated with Turnover Intentions (N = 315)

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b	SE	β	*b*	SE	β	*b*	SE	β
Personal Characteristics									
White	-.38	.46	-.05	-.60	.44	-.07	-.60	.44	-.08
Bachelor's Degree or higher	-.11	.41	-.02	-.10	.39	-.02	.02	.41	.00
Married	-.53	.53	-.06	-.77	.51	-.08	-.82	.50	-.09†
Military experience	-.12	.45	-.02	-.34	.42	-.04	-.38	.42	-.05
External hire	-.32	.49	-.05	-.23	.47	-.04	-.24	.46	-.04
Age	-.02	.03	-.06	-.01	.03	-.01	.00	.03	-.01
Family support	-.12	.08	-.08	.06	.09	.04	.13	.09	.09
Supervisor tenure (in years)	.06	.03	.18*	.06	.03	.20**	.07	.03	.21**
Tenure in current department	-.05	.03	-.16†	-.05	.02	-.15*	-.04	.02	-.13
Chief tenure (log years)	.22	.22	.07	.22	.21	.07	.22	.21	.07
Operational Characteristics									
Family-work conflict				-.01	.07	-.01	-.04	.07	-.03
Strain-based work-family conflict				.13	.04	.24**	.13	.04	.24**
Time-based work-family conflict				-.06	.05	-.09	-.06	.05	-.08
Job stress: Resources				.14	.06	.15*	.09	.07	.10
Job stress: Perceptual dedication				-.03	.07	-.03	-.01	.07	-.01
Job stress: Operational factors				.09	.03	.21**	.10	.03	.23**
Organizational Characteristics									
Collegial support							-.01	.08	-.01
Organizational commitment							-.58	.20	-.18**
Organization size							-.29	.33	-.06
F		0.58			3.23***			3.48***	
Adjusted R^2		.003			.132			.157	

†$p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The final chapter ties the previous chapters together through a discussion and elaboration of the findings, along with implications and avenues of future research. The chapter begins with a summary of the extant scholarship on stress among police chiefs, followed by a summary of the findings from the current study. Policy implications are outlined by person-directed and organization-directed interventions, and the chapter concludes with recommendations for future studies.

Summary of the Extant Scholarship

Policing in the 21st century has been under increased scrutiny. Decades of negative incidents with the police have culminated in formal investigations and consent decrees by the federal government (Department of Justice, 2015; 2016; Moughty, 2011; Tucker, 2015), along with grassroots efforts to increase the transparency and accountability of police departments (see Blacklivesmatter.com; Copsholdingcopsaccountable.com). Policing in the 21st century operates in a technologically advanced society whereby citizens, armed with smart devices,[9] have the ability to document interactions with the police and broadcast them to the world in real time (Shoichet, 2016). At the same time, the media has been hungry to cover the next officer involved shooting and/or extrajudicial use of force incident (McLaughlin, 2015). Both peaceful protests and racially-based riots have placed intense pressures on police departments to develop effective strategies to simultaneously maintain order, build and foster positive relationships with the community, and reduce crime without violating

[9] Smart devices refer to portable devices equipped with audio/video recording and Internet accessibility features (e.g., smartphones, tablets, etc.).

others' civil rights. As a result, while policing can be an emotionally and physically daunting occupation for officers throughout the ranks, much of the burden to regulate these progressive efforts are the responsibility of police administrators.

Police chiefs have a demanding role that requires them to balance the needs of their department and subordinates, along with the desires and beliefs of key stakeholders (Cordner, 2016; Witham & Watson, 1983). From managing department budgets to community planning and mobilizing, police chiefs are expected to be a human Swiss army knife, complete with a badge and a gun. As a 'jack of all trades,' chiefs have to navigate complex political and community environments, while serving as liaisons for their department anytime there is a critical incident or request for comment from the community. Given that nearly 75% of municipal police departments in the United States have less than 25 full-time sworn personnel (Reeves, 2015), it is not uncommon for the chiefs to respond to calls for service as well (Falcone, Wells, & Weisheit, 2002). In spite of the demanding role and responsibilities, very few studies have explored the well-being of police chiefs.

The President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing identified officer safety and wellness as a key pillar to improving police practices (President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015). Yet resiliency and officer wellness can be difficult without having the proper support and understanding of administrators. Without policies that encourage work-life balance or programs to improve employee well-being, it can be challenging for officers to help others without helping themselves, first (Harrison & Westwood, 2009). Moreover, the burden to address police reform issues, including efforts to create and promote a culture of officer safety and wellness, will ultimately fall

on the key decision-makers within police departments: police chiefs. Thus, the next logical step to improving the well-being of officers is to make the issues of health and wellness relevant to police chiefs.

Despite the multifaceted and demanding role of police chiefs, very few studies have examined the factors shaping important work-related attitudes of police chiefs, such as job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions. To date, much of the literature on these work-related attitudes have focused primarily on frontline officers and mid-level managers. The current study fills a void in the literature by being one of the first multidimensional analyses of work-related attitudes among police chiefs. The purpose of the current study was to examine the personal, operational, and organizational factors associated with job satisfaction (JS), burnout, and turnover intentions. Overall, there are several findings from the current study that warrant further discussion.

Summary of the Current Study

Data for the current study were collected from 315 male police chiefs from varying sizes of municipal, special, and independent school districts in Texas. Overall, respondents were predominantly white (79.7%), with an average tenure of 27.7 (SD = 9.7) years in law enforcement and 8.1 years as chief (SD = 7.5). Chiefs, on average, were relatively satisfied with their jobs and reported low to moderate levels of exhaustion, disengagement, and intentions to leave the profession. It is difficult to discuss how estimates in the current study relate to prevalence estimates in previous studies for two reasons. First, the current study is among the first to examine the personal and work-related factors associated with JS, burnout, and turnover intentions among police chiefs. Work-related attitudes are shaped through one's work environment (Herzberg, 1968).

Thus, it is difficult to make comparisons across studies since most studies to date have focused on frontline officers and mid-level managers. Moreover, while there is some overlap between the duties and responsibilities of police chiefs and their subordinates, particularly in smaller police departments (Falcone et al., 2002), the role and work environments of police chiefs are much different than that of their subordinates (Cordner, 2016; Wilson, 1968). Despite previous findings showing that officer rank is not a significant predictor of JS among officers (Zhao et al., 1999), however, future studies should conduct comparisons of work-related attitudes/behaviors across frontline officers, mid-level managers, and police administrators. The literature could also benefit from future studies examining personal and work-related factors associated with work-related attitudes and behaviors that are unique to each rank.

Second, estimates tend to vary across studies due to the tremendous variation in the conceptualizations and operationalizations of the four outcome variables. For example, Zhao and colleagues (1999) assessed JS among front-line officers using the Job Descriptive index (Smith, 1974), which assesses five different facets of JS (e.g., satisfaction with work, supervisors, coworkers, pay, and promotion). Moreover, Ercikti et al. (2011) used Dantzker's (1993) 23-item instrument to capture JS among mid-level police managers. Burnout studies commonly use varieties of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981), which captures three dimensions of burnout. To this author's knowledge, this if the first study to employ the OLBI (Demerouti & Nachreiner, 1996; Demerouti, 1999; Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005), which captures two dimensions of burnout and has shown to have psychometric advantages over the

MBI (Demerouti et al., 2001). While improvements in measurement advance the field, they temporarily impede comparisons to prior research.

Previous studies of turnover intentions among police chiefs have largely consisted of qualitative studies and/or unpublished doctoral dissertations (Balfe, 2015; Li, 2016; Rainguet, 1998; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001; Murdaugh, 2005). Even more, most of the dissertations have focused on the impact of external factors on chief turnover, such as the influence and relationship quality of sovereigns on turnover behaviors (Li, 2016; Murdaugh, 2005). As a result, less is known about the internal factors associated with turnover decisions among police chiefs. Additionally, there is tremendous variation in operationalizations of turnover intentions and turnover among police officers in general. The current study used a validated measure of turnover intentions (Brough & Frame, 2004), while other studies have used opened-ended questions inquiring about chiefs' decision to leave/reason for termination (Rainguet, 1998; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001), or have asked respondents to choose from a list of reasons explaining their predecessors' departure (Li, 2016; Murdaugh, 2005).

Measuring actual turnover and turnover intentions among police chiefs can be difficult since officers generally become police chiefs towards the end of their career. Moreover, there are several complex and inter-related reasons contributing to chief turnover. For example, Murdaugh (2005) reported the most common reason chiefs' predecessors left office was related to coercion or pressure from external sovereigns to resign (i.e., involuntary turnover), followed by retirement (i.e., voluntary turnover). Conversely, Li (2016) found that the most common reasons for police chief departure was retirement, followed by 'leaving the position for better opportunities' or by being

fired. Overall, future studies would benefit from the use of standardized measures to identify key correlates of voluntary vs. involuntary turnover among police chiefs and police officers in general.

Job satisfaction. The first research question sought to identify the personal, operational, and organizational factors influencing job satisfaction among police chiefs. Previous policing studies have shown that personal characteristics have a limited impact on JS, as it is largely shaped through factors inherent in the work-environment (Ercikti et al., 2011; Herzberg, 1968; Johnson, 2012; Zhao et al., 1999). Findings from the current study were consistent with the extant scholarship in that work-related factors, particularly organizational variables, accounted for most of the explained variance in JS. Indeed, personal characteristics only accounted for 7.5% of the variance, which increased to 9.5% with the addition of the operational variables, and finally 22.5% with the addition of the organizational variables into the multivariate models.

While the variance in JS for the full model is similar to the variance in JS in previous studies of police officers (Johnson, 2012 [24.5%]), nearly three-fourths of the variance is still unaccounted for. Since JS is shaped by one's work environment (Herzberg, 1968), future studies should examine other correlates that are related to police organizations, along with factors that are inherent to the role and responsibilities of police chiefs. For example, Zhao et al. (1999) and Johnson (2012) examined the effect of Hackman and Oldham's (1975) five core dimensions of the immediate work environment on JS among frontline officers. Zhao et al. (1999) found that skill variety, task identity, task significance, and autonomy were the strongest predictors of JS among police officers, while Johnson (2012) identified autonomy as the strongest predictor of JS. Yet

in order to better isolate work-related factors associated with JS among police chiefs, future studies should first explore the routine activities of police chiefs. Indeed, little is known about the daily routines of police chiefs and where they dedicate most of their time and efforts (White, 2017). Perhaps employing a time-task analysis of police chiefs could help us better understand the roles and responsibilities of police chiefs, along with parceling out how these routine duties influence their work-related attitudes.

Previous studies have linked JS among police personnel to personal (e.g., education and tenure), operational (e.g., work-family conflict, job stress), and organizational correlates (e.g., collegial support and burnout) (Burke et al., 1984; Howard et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 1999; Jaramillo et al., 2005; Johnson, 2012). In the current study, however, organizational commitment and organization size were the strongest and only significant predictors of JS among police chiefs. For personal characteristics, increased family support and shorter tenures in chiefs' current department were associated with higher levels of JS, while strain-based WFC was the only operational characteristic related to JS. After the inclusion of the organizational characteristics, however, the relationships were only marginally significant at the $p <$. 10 level.

Much of the literature on organization size and JS is mixed, with some scholars arguing that JS would be greater in larger organizations due to better fringe benefits and more opportunities for specialization/promotion (Johnson, 2012). Conversely, Crank et al. (1987) hypothesized that JS would be lower in larger organizations due to the increased stress from the volume of decisions. The current study, however, was among the first to actually incorporate organization size in a multivariate model of JS. Findings revealed that JS was shown to be greater among chiefs working for larger organizations.

Inconsistent with Crank and colleagues (1987), job stress was not significantly associated with JS, so perhaps chiefs of larger departments enjoy the challenge of having increased responsibilities and demands. On the other hand, the current study did not use measures assessing the impact of external pressures from sovereigns (e.g., the media, political environment, police unions) on JS among police chiefs. While police chiefs enjoy increased autonomy and discretion compared to the rank-and-file, sovereigns play an important role in shaping the degree of discretion allotted among police chiefs (Matusiak et al., 2016; Tunnell & Gaines, 1992). Both Zhao et al. (1999) and Johnson (2012) found autonomy to be a significant predictor of JS. Thus, it would be interesting to determine (1) if the influence of external sovereigns accounts for the additional explained variance in JS; and (2) if organizational size continues to be a significant predictor of JS net of controlling for the degree of external pressures from sovereigns.

Organization commitment (OC), which refers to chiefs' bond, loyalty, and/or attachment to their organization (Mowday et al., 1979), was the strongest predictor of JS among police chiefs. Organizational commitment has been a relatively understudied construct in the policing literature, particularly among police administrators. Of the studies that exist, however, OC has been strongly linked to JS among the rank-and-file (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Jaramillo et al., 2005). According to Steers (1972), "people who are highly committed to their work organizations are willing to devote more effort to the organization, identify more with the values of the employer, and seek to maintain their affiliation with the organization" (p. 302). The significance of OC and its relationship to JS among chiefs has important practical and theoretical implications.

Indeed, OC has been linked to many viable work-related attitudes and behaviors, such as motivation (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004), absenteeism, job satisfaction, job performance, and turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday et al., 1982; Pool & Pool, 2006; Riketta, 2002). Additionally, JS and OC have been identified as major determinants of organization performance (Riketta, 2002). Thus, it makes sense that chiefs who are not as invested in the mission or goals of the department and/or have a lack of motivation or attachment to their organization would not particularly enjoy being police chief. As a result, chiefs with low organizational commitment and low job satisfaction can negatively influence the attitudes and behaviors of the rank-and-file, which, in turn, can impact the quality of services provided to the community.

From a theoretical standpoint, it is important to note, however, that the temporal relationship between JS and OC has not been fully established. To date, four competing models have been proposed: (1) JS is a causal antecedent to OC (JS → OC); (2) OC is casually antecedent to JS (OC → JS); (3) the relationship between JS and OC is reciprocal (JS ←→ OC); and (4) there is no relationship between JS and OC (Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). The JS→OC model is the most widely accepted model in the organizational psychology literature (Mowday et al., 1982). This model argues that JS develops more quickly while OC manifests overtime after an employee has developed a thorough understanding of the job and job facets, along with having enough positive and negative experiences with an organization to understand the long-term implications of maintaining employment. However, other longitudinal studies have produced mixed

results with support for each of the four proposed models (Currivan, 1999; Huang & Hsiao, 2007; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992).

Huang and Hsiao (2007) found a reciprocal relationship between JS and OC, suggesting that making adjustments to improve the working conditions can impact JS and OC similarly. Conversely, Vanderberg and Lance (1999) found that OC was a causal antecedent to JS. This model is best explained through behavioral commitment and cognitive dissonance perspectives (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). First, the behavioral commitment perspective argues that joining an organization when there are other viable employment opportunities available demonstrates a strong degree of attitudinal commitment (Staw, 1980). Subsequently, "…commitment initiates a rationalization process through which individuals 'make sense' of their current situation by developing attitudes (e.g., JS) that are consistent with their commitment (Bateman & Strasser, 1984, p. 97). Said another way, having low JS and a strong commitment to an organization creates cognitive dissonance. To reduce the degree of cognitive dissonance, employees adjust their satisfaction levels to align with their current degree of commitment.

The four models have not been empirically tested among police officers and the data for the current study are cross-sectional. Nevertheless, findings from Vanderberg and Lance (1999), along with the behavioral commitment perspective (Bateman & Strasser, 1984), may be the most appropriate for explaining the relationship between the two work-related attitudes among police chiefs. For example, compared to other professions, becoming a police officer takes considerable time and effort. Given the extensive training and vetting processes officers encounter prior to becoming a sworn peace officer, one could argue that commitment develops early on in their career. Even

more, becoming a police chief is an arduous process and demonstrates a strong commitment to the profession. Moving up the ranks not only requires dedication, but also experience and opportunities that allow for the development of the skills necessary to be appointed.

What is interesting is that previous studies have found that OC decreases with officer rank and tenure (Beck & Wilson, 1995; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003). In the current study, however, OC had no significant relation with tenure at the bivariate level. Even more, JS can be dynamic and vary according to one's current work environment (Ercikti et al., 2011; Rhodes, 2015; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, moving into a new position may not only help officers develop a stronger connection to the organization, but the new responsibilities and opportunities can reduce the cognitive dissonance and, in turn, improve their level of job satisfaction. Future studies should use longitudinal studies to (1) parcel out the temporal relationships between JS and OC; and (2) determine whether recognition and promotion among mid-level managers and new police chiefs account for variations in JS and OC.

It is important to note, however, that even though chiefs in the current study reported, on average, relatively high levels of job satisfaction, this was not the case for every chief. Indeed, the sample also included chiefs who scored below the midpoint, which indicates that they were not satisfied with their job. Locke (1976) notes that job dissatisfaction manifests from a disconnect between the expectations one has for a job versus the reality of the position. Thus, while being promoted to chief may improve one's work related attitudes initially, a mismatch between the expectations and realities of the job can become an issue. For example, an officer may become the police chief with goals

of creating positive and tangible change within their department and community. Yet after settling in as chief, they begin to experience the realities of continual bureaucratic tape, nonsense politics, and backlash from the community and their subordinates. As a result, the reality trumps the expectations, which results in lower levels of job satisfaction. Moreover, aligning with the behavioral commitment perspective (Bateman & Strasser, 1984) burnout and turnover intentions/turnover may manifest if there are limited opportunities for police chiefs to make adjustments to their work environments to reduce the dissonance and align their JS with their commitment to the organization.

Collectively, the findings from the current study indicated that Texas police chiefs were generally satisfied with their jobs. Additionally, organizational factors, particularly organizational commitment and organizational size, were better predictors of JS than operational or personal characteristics of police chiefs. The fact that increased family support and strain-based WFC were marginally associated with JS in the full model suggests that families may also play an important role in shaping chiefs' satisfaction with their job. The current study is among the first to assess work-related attitudes among police chiefs and findings suggest that additional research is warranted. Considering that JS is a dynamic work-related attitude (Ercikti et al., 2011; Rhodes, 2015; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), future studies should employ longitudinal designs to assess JS over time, along with how the role of external sovereigns impacts levels of job satisfaction, burnout, and voluntary turnover decisions.

Burnout: Exhaustion. The second research question focused on the personal, operational, and organizational factors influencing two dimensions of burnout among police chiefs: exhaustion and disengagement. Consistent with previous studies (Gershon

et al., 2009; Maslach et al., 2001), operational and organizational factors accounted for much of the explained variance in exhaustion and disengagement. Collectively, the findings provide support for other studies that note the importance of families in shaping work-related attitudes (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Martinussen et al., 2007; Netemeyer et al., 1999). Higher levels of exhaustion were associated with less family support, greater family-work conflict, and greater time-based FWC. In other words, there exists a reciprocal relationship between the demands of the home life and the responsibilities and duties of police chiefs (Howard et al., 2004).

Time-based WFC and job stress from operational factors were the strongest predictors of exhaustion. This finding provides credence to the demanding duties and responsibilities of police chiefs. Importantly, both chiefs *and* their families have to adapt to duties, responsibilities, and realities of the position (Reese & Castellano, 2007). Nearly 86% of the chiefs in this study were married, so the majority of chiefs have responsibilities both inside and outside of work. Previous studies with both policing and non-policing samples have found a link between work-family conflict and burnout (Martinussen et al., 2007; McCarty & Skogan, 2012; Westman & Etzion, 1995). Westman and Etzion (1995) used a sample of 101 male military officers and their wives and found a reciprocal contagion effect, in which the symptoms of burnout from the husband were vicariously transferred to the wives and vice versa. Through empathy and concern for their loved one, spouses may be susceptible to vicariously adopting similar attitudes, behaviors, and frustrations of their partners. This, over-time, can result in their own depletion of emotional, physical, and cognitive resources. Nevertheless, burnout as

an emotional contagion has not been explored among police administrators and future research is warranted.

There are countless examples, however, of how serving as a police chief can create personal and familial conflicts outside of work. Being a police chief is not a simple 'nine-to-five' occupation. In addition to managing their stress from staffing issues, bureaucratic red tape, and administrative duties, chiefs have to be accessible to their constituents and attend meetings and community events throughout the year. Additionally, police chiefs cannot predict when and what resources are needed for the next critical incident. In cases where police chiefs are embroiled in a community controversy, their families are not immune from the public scrutiny and backlash (Reese & Catellano, 2007). As a result, the families of police chiefs are placed in a unique position where they must simultaneously cope and provide support for their partner.

In some of the smaller departments, it is not uncommon for police chiefs to be directly involved in the critical incident as well. Unlike the uniform or duty belt, the trauma and/or psychological shield officers use to detach from emotionally exhausting situations (Rowe & Regehr, 2010) are not left in the locker room at the end of a shift. The exhaustion goes home with the officers where it can be perceived by family members as a lack of interest or concern for family matters (Reese & Catellano, 2007).

As a whole, policing is an unpredictable occupation with limited flexibility. Police chiefs cannot simply switch shifts or always find someone to cover an appearance for them, leaving them feeling trapped in their decision to choose work over family. As a result, the time spent with work-related responsibilities can take time away from family members and interrupt family outings and routines. This, in turn, can create conflict

within the family and foster/intensify negative outcomes related to physical, emotional, and cognitive exhaustion (Boles et al., 2001; Howard et al., 2004; Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Consistent with previous studies (Boles, Johnson, & Hair, 1997), FWC was a significant predictor of exhaustion. This finding suggests that the risk for exhaustion increases when the demands of the family life spill over and create conflict in the workplace (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Rainguet & Dodge's (2001) qualitative research with police chiefs noted that the demands of the family life was one of the key factors relating to chief turnover. Policing is a stressful occupation and decades of research have shown that high levels of stress can increase officers' risk for numerous negative personal and professional outcomes (e.g., marital problems, health problems, addiction, taking care of a sick relative, and/or job satisfaction; see Abdollahi, 2002; Gershon et al., 2009; Howard et al., 2004). Similar to front-line officers and midlevel managers, police chiefs also experience issues in their personal lives that could impede their productivity, focus, and performance on the job.

The findings from the exhaustion model provide an avenue for future studies to employ mixed methodologies to better understand the underlying factors driving WFC and FWC. The qualitative approach could reveal the struggles police chiefs and their families face, along with how they cope with exhaustion and attempt (if at all) to maintain a healthy work-life balance. Moreover, the insight obtained from the qualitative approach could be useful for developing an onboarding or transition program for new chiefs and their families.

Burnout: Disengagement. Disengagement is the second dimension of burnout and refers to the degree to which chiefs experience negative cynical attitudes about the job and/or others, complacency, lack of interest, and/or detachment from the work (Demerouti et al., 2003). Similar to exhaustion, operational and organizational factors accounted for much of the explained variance in disengagement, particularly work-family conflict and organizational commitment. Unlike exhaustion, however, higher levels of disengagement were associated with key personal characteristics, such as race, hiring origin, and chief tenure.

Consistent with the literature (Hawkins, 2001; McCarty & Skogan, 2012), officers of color scored significantly lower on burnout than their white counterparts. This finding is interesting given its contrast to previous studies suggesting that officers of color may be more prone to discriminatory treatment than white officers within their agency (Toch, 2002; Dowler, 2005). Dowler's (2005) study of Baltimore police officers found that Black officers were more likely than white officers to feel criticized by their peers and believe that they are perceived as militant. Nevertheless, the lower disengagement scores among non-white chiefs may be the result of added pressure to obtain legitimacy for not only themselves as a police administrator, but their department that is operating under a non-white chief. Disengagement encompasses one's emotions toward their work responsibilities (Demerouti et al., 2003), and chiefs with higher levels of disengagement are likely perceiving the work to be less challenging and uninteresting. Given the current state of racial tension in policing, along with research showing perceptions that policing faces increased criticism (Dowler, 2005), non-white chiefs may perceive their efforts to obtain legitimacy as more challenging and are thus, more engaged and focused in their

efforts to excel as a chief. Future research, however, should continue to explore factors driving racial and ethnic differences in burnout among police administrators.

Other personal factors such as hiring origin and chief tenure were also related to disengagement. The limited - albeit outdated - research on hiring origins of police chiefs has focused on differences in qualifications among internal versus external hires (Enter, 1986; Penegor & Peak, 1992). Enter (1986) found that while most chiefs were hired internally, they had significantly lower levels of education, experience in specialized assignments, and had longer career paths than external hires. External hires were more likely to have administrative experience and higher levels of education. In the current study, being hired outside of the department was associated with lower levels of disengagement. Perhaps this is because external hires have to be more engaged in their work in order to understand the unique dynamics and networks of a new department and community. On the other hand, internal hires may be more familiar with the internal and external factors affecting the agency (Penegor & Peak, 1992). As a result, internal hires may develop complacency and become less engaged in their work after having first-hand knowledge of the realistic barriers inhibiting real change. Nevertheless, future research should continue to explore career trajectories and performance evaluations of chiefs who were hired within vs outside the department.

Very few studies have explored WFC with the disengagement dimension of burnout, particularly among police administrators. Strain-based FWC was the strongest predictor of disengagement, suggesting that cynical attitudes and a lack of interest in the work increases when chiefs struggle to maintain a healthy work-life balance. Chiefs have a highly demanding position that may require decisions and inquiries outside of the

traditional work hours. The findings suggest that juggling conflicting responsibilities between their work and home-life eventually leads to chiefs becoming less engaged in their work.

Interestingly, strain-based WFC and time-based WFC were both significantly related to disengagement, yet in opposing directions. Lower disengagement was associated with lower strain-based WFC and higher time-based WFC. The findings place chiefs in a unique position whereby disengagement or family conflict may be inevitable. On one hand, chiefs may become more engaged in their work by attempting to ameliorate the sources of strain that create conflict outside of work. On the other hand, lower levels of disengagement were also associated with greater time-based family work conflict. Moreover, chiefs can become more engaged at work at the cost of creating conflict within their families from spending too much time at work. Vice versa, chiefs could focus on improving their family/home-life by spending more time with them, yet this would be at the cost of creating more strain at work and ultimately becoming less engaged. Additional research is needed to identify and isolate the key factors driving disengagement and the different dimensions of WFC. Future studies should employ mixed methodologies with chiefs and their families to better understand the conflicting responsibilities between work and home-life.

Turning to organizational characteristics, the current study was among the first to examine the association between organizational commitment and burnout among police administrators. Stronger commitment to an organization was associated with lower levels of disengagement. This is not surprising considering that previous studies have linked organizational commitment to other important work-related attitudes and behaviors,

including job satisfaction, motivation, job performance, productivity, turnover intentions, and actual turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002). Collectively, these findings suggest that chiefs with stronger commitments to their organization may be more motivated and engaged in their work. What remains unknown is whether exhaustion and disengagement vary among chiefs according to specific dimensions of organizational commitment. Thus, future studies should explore the impact of chiefs' affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment on both exhaustion and disengagement.

Collectively, the findings from the current study indicated that Texas police chiefs, on average, experienced low to moderate levels of exhaustion and disengagement. In both models, work-related factors, particularly organizational commitment and WFC, were better predictors of exhaustion and disengagement than personal characteristics of police chiefs. In the disengagement model, however, race and hiring origin were significant, suggesting interesting differences between white and non-white chiefs, along with chiefs who were hired internally versus externally. Finally, similar to the job satisfaction model, families play an important role in shaping burnout among chiefs. Additional research should employ mixed methods and longitudinal designs to better understand how chiefs and their families cope with the stress and time-demands of the job.

Turnover intentions. Officer turnover is a common concern across police departments. With national estimates showing the actual turnover rate of officers being around 11% (Wareham et al., 2015), the numerous direct and indirect costs of turnover warrant further inquiry into the factors influencing officers' decision to leave. Much of

the limited literature on officer turnover, however, has focused primarily on frontline officers (Lynch & Tuckey, 2007; Matz et al., 2014; Wareham et al., 2015). Very few studies have explored the internal and external factors associated with voluntary and involuntary turnover among police administrators. This is particularly problematic considering the average tenure of a police chief is relatively low. While previous studies have found average tenures of police chiefs ranging from two-and-a-half years to five years (Fisher, 2009; Li, 2016; Maguire, 2003; Peak & Glensor, 1996; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001), very few studies have examined the factors contributing to chiefs' decision to leave their department. The final research question focused on the personal, operational, and organizational factors influencing turnover intentions among Texas police chiefs. Several findings warranted further elaboration.

First, respondents, on average, scored slight below the scale midpoint for turnover intentions. This finding suggests that chiefs, on average, have either contemplated, planned, or had a low-to-moderate desire to leave their organization. Given the limited number of studies exploring turnover intentions among police chiefs, it is difficult to determine whether this baseline estimate is unique. Looking at the totality of the circumstances, however, respondents had served, on average, 27.7 years in law enforcement, with 8.1 total years as a police chief. Given that eight years is well above the average tenure for chiefs found in previous studies, it is possible that chiefs, on average, were beginning to contemplate – or were currently in the process of – leaving their organization.[10]

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[10] It is important to note that chief tenure was operationalized as the *total* time spent as chief of police both in their current and former department. In the current sample, 18.1% (n = 57) of respondents had served as chief in their former department. In their former department, the median chief tenure was 6.2 years (M = 8.3; SD = 7.0). The median tenure for chiefs who had only served as chief in their current department was

Second, operational and organizational variables accounted for much of the explained variance in turnover intentions, particularly strain-based WFC, operational job stressors, and organizational commitment. Indeed, the personal characteristics model was not significant, suggesting that personal characteristics alone have little-to-no influence on turnover intentions among police chiefs. This finding was consistent with Matz et al.'s (2014) meta-analysis, which found that personal characteristics of officers did not influence their intentions to leave their department. With the inclusion of operational characteristics, however, the model became significant and accounted for 13.2% of the explained variance in turnover intentions, and finally 15.7% with the addition of the organizational variables into the multivariate models. Nevertheless, over 80% of the variance in turnover intentions was still unaccounted for.

Previous studies have identified several factors contributing to voluntary and involuntary turnover in police departments (Lynch & Tuckey, 2007; Matz et al., 2014; Wareham et al., 2015). Matz et al.'s (2014) meta-analysis identified work-related attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and burnout), psychological distress, and procedural and distributive justice as the key factors influencing turnover intentions among front-line officers. While it is likely that these factors may also impact police administrators, it important to consider both the unique internal and external factors that influence their decision making. In the United States, police chiefs are generally appointed by city officials, such as the city manager, city council, or mayor. Thus, much of their discretion is regulated by the needs and desires of institutional sovereigns (e.g., local government, media, community groups, and other justice executives) (Potts, 1980; Matusiak, 2016;

5.0 years (M = 7.1; SD = 7.1). Collectively, whether serving as chief in their current or former department, the average tenures as chief were still above the average tenures for chiefs established in previous studies.

Matusiak et al., 2016; Tunnell & Gaines, 1992). Previous studies have found that involuntary turnover among police chiefs was the result of the quality of social relationships with institutional sovereigns (Li, 2016; Murdaugh, 2005). As a result, it is likely that voluntary turnover decisions among police chiefs are also influenced by the quality of their working relationships with institutional sovereigns as well. Moreover, future studies could benefit from including additional internal and external variables related to turnover that were not included in the current study.

Third, operational characteristics such as strain-based WFC and operational job stressors were the strongest predictors of turnover intentions among police chiefs. While WFC has been found to be a strong predictor of actual turnover in a meta-analysis of non-policing studies (Rubenstein et al., 2015), job stress has consistently been a predictor of both turnover intentions and actual turnover in both policing and non-policing studies (Allisey et al., 2014; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mor Barak et al., 2001). While few studies have quantitatively explored the impact of these characteristics on turnover intentions among police chiefs, the findings provide support for Rainguet and Dodge's (2001) qualitative study of turnover decisions among police chiefs.

Rainguet and Dodge (2001) identified job stress and family conflict as two common themes justifying police chiefs' decision to leave. The current study supports the notion that the stress from work – in this case, operational stressors – makes it difficult for chiefs to maintain a healthy work-life balance. As a result, the ongoing strain from operational stressors, coupled with the high level of family conflict stemming from work-related duties, influences chiefs contemplation about leaving their department.

Due to the cross-sectional nature of the data, however, establishing the temporal order of the predictors and where they align on the pathway to turnover is limited. Future longitudinal studies should consider using the job-strain model as a theoretical framework. The job-strain model holds that excessive job demands manifest strain, which can result in negative outcomes such as work-family conflict, burnout, and turnover (Karasek, 1979; Lambert, Hogan, Cheeseman, & Barton-Bellessa, 2013; Lee & Ashford, 1996). In the current study, excessive job stress from operational factors may create strain among police chiefs, which could explain the significance of the strain-based WFC. As chiefs struggle to balance the demands and responsibilities of both their home and work-life, the strain may influence their commitment to the organization. Given the totality of the circumstances, chiefs may prioritize their health and family over their work responsibilities and begin to contemplate leaving or actually resign from their department. Nevertheless, longitudinal studies using advanced structural equation modeling could vastly improve our understanding of how personal and work-related factors influence job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover among police administrators.

Policy Implications

Findings from the current study hold important implications for chiefs at both the individual and organizational level. It is important to note, however, that tangible change in the health and wellness of officers is more effective and long term when initiatives involve a combination of both person-directed and organization-directed interventions (Awa, Plaumann, & Walter, 2010; Burke, 2016). Moreover, chiefs should consider adopting a multifaceted approach to improving the health and wellness of not only themselves, but among officers within their department.

Person-directed interventions. Person-directed interventions focus on strategies that are important to the individual chief, their families, and friends outside of work. According to Awa and colleagues (2010), these strategies are usually comprised of "…cognitive behavioral measures aimed at enhancing job competence and personal coping skills, social support, or different kinds of relaxation exercises" (p. 185). No one understands the work one does like those who do the work themselves. In a typical agency, police chiefs are usually the only officer executing the demands and responsibilities of the top administrative position. Unlike frontline officers who can turn to a fellow colleague or supervisor for support and guidance, this option is not always available to police chiefs. One solution would be for chiefs to seek out opportunities that allow for chiefs to network, communicate, and interact with other police chiefs.

In Texas, police chiefs have the benefit of legislation mandating them to complete 40-hours of professional development every two years. During these sessions, chiefs from municipal, special, and independent school districts are exposed to cutting edge research on technological and strategic innovations, leadership skills, legislative updates, and emerging issues in policing. While formal evaluations of the effectiveness of leadership workshops are limited, the trainings provide an opportunity for chiefs to network and communicate how these topics are relevant to their own experience and individual agencies. While this option is not always available in every state, the findings from this study can help police chiefs lobby for legislative change to encourage such state-mandated professional development opportunities.

Other options for chiefs would be to become a member and attend the annual International Association of Chiefs of Police (ICAP) conference (see

http://www.theiacpconference.org/). In addition to networking opportunities, attendees of the IACP conferences are exposed to workshops, presentations, and hands-on trainings regarding contemporary policing issues, new techniques, and emerging technologies. Additionally, becoming a member of IACP grants access to online resources and model policies, research publications and a subscription to IACP's monthly professional publication, *Police Chief Magazine* (see http://www.iacp.org/membership).

Professional development is key for police chiefs and opportunities that build the capacity of chiefs to become effective leaders can help improve work-related attitudes. The findings in the current study suggest the need for avenues that would spark motivation, commitment, and engagement among police chiefs. Collectively, ongoing leadership workshops for law enforcement executives and attending conferences such as the IACP provide chiefs with additional tools, resources, and ideas to adopt. The benefits of these endeavors can help chiefs develop a new sense of purpose and ownership in their efforts to effectively lead their department. This, in turn, may help keep chiefs engaged, increase their level of satisfaction with their job, and potentially increase their commitment to their department (Sitzmann & Weinhardt, 2015). The effectiveness of workshops and conferences, however, are contingent on chiefs' resources, self-efficacy, and motivations to transfer knowledge from the training to the job (Grossman & Salas, 2011). Thus, future research should focus on how training impacts officer attitudes, along with developing evidence-based strategies to ensure the transfer of training from knowledge to action in policing.

Two of the most important leadership skills of police chiefs are time management and the ability to delegate (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). Time-based WFC had a

positive relationship with exhaustion and disengagement. Thus, a healthy work-life balance can only occur if chiefs dedicate uninterrupted time to their family and friends. While easier said than done, part of this goal can be accomplished through enlisting competent command staff that compliment chiefs' strengths and weaknesses. Through proper delegation, command staff can help chiefs be everywhere at once and potentially ameliorate stress emanating from operational stressors (e.g., excessive administrative duties, keep up with legislative updates, staff shortages).

Organization-directed interventions. In addition to the individual-level intervention, chiefs should implement organization-directed interventions that would not only benefit them, but officers in their department as well. Policing can be an emotionally and physically daunting occupation. Resiliency, however, can be difficult without having the proper support and understanding of administrators. Moreover, officer health and wellness should be a priority of every police department. Yet without policies that encourage a work-life balance or programs to improve employee well-being, it can be challenging for officers to help others without helping themselves, first (Harrison & Westwood, 2009). Thus, the burden to addressing police reform issues, including efforts to create and promote a culture of officer safety and wellness, will ultimately fall on the key decision-makers within police departments: police chiefs.

While police departments offer various resources to improve the well-being of their officers (e.g., employee assistance programs [EAPs], fitness initiatives, emotional survival trainings; Kuhns, Maguire, & Leach, 2015; Donnelly, Valentine, & Oehme, 2015), most programs typically focus on improving physical versus mental fitness (Rachele, Heesch, & Washington, 2014). This can be problematic considering police

officers are at a heightened risk for a host of negative psychological, physiological, and behavior outcomes including - but not limited to – post-and secondary traumatic stress, alcoholism and substance abuse, domestic violence, sleep disorders, heart attacks, ulcers, low job satisfaction, burnout, turnover, and suicide (Gershon et al., 2009; Stevens, 2008; Toch, 2002; Violanti, 2004; Violanti et al., 2013). Additionally, officers are typically hesitant to seek help and/or use EAPs out of fear of confidentiality issues or stigmas associated with seeking help, particularly among male officers (Donnelly et al., 2015; Goldstein, 2006).

One potential way to increase officers' efforts to improve their health and satisfaction with their job is to make the issue of health and wellness relevant to decision-makers at the administrative level. The findings in the current study showed that police chiefs, on average, were satisfied with their jobs and reported low to moderate levels of burnout and intentions to leave. Nevertheless, there were police chiefs who reported low levels of job satisfaction and high levels of burnout and turnover intentions. Thus, the issue of health and wellness *is* relevant to police administrators who have the ability to shape the work environment in a manner that is conducive to improving employees' overall well-being.

Previous meta-analytic studies and systematic reviews of the literature have found that organizational wellness programs, if implemented properly, can result in a host of positive physical and financial outcomes (Chapman, 2003; Goetzel et al., 2014; Soler et al., 2010; Berry, Mirabito, & Baun. 2010). Much of a police departments' budget is allocated to personnel costs (80-90%; Reeves, 2015) and turnover can be an expensive expenditure (Copeland, 2009; International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2008;

Moskos, 2009). Additionally, relative to the general public, officers have an elevated risk for early death, heart attacks, stress and fatigue, and poor nutrition (Abdollahi, 2002; Can & Hendy, 2014; Gershon et al., 2009; Violanti et al., 2013). Chapman's (2003) meta-analysis of 42 studies found that workplace health promotion programs are one of the most effective avenues for organizations to save on expenditures related to medical costs and absenteeism. Indeed, findings indicated that wellness promotions reduced, on average, 25% of costs associated with "…sick leave, health plan costs, and workers' compensation and disability insurance costs" (pp. 7-9). Other reviews have found that effective wellness programs can improve health behaviors that are common issues among police officers, such as better diet, smoking cessation, lower alcohol consumption, and reductions in blood pressure and cholesterol levels (Soler et al., 2010).

The findings from the current study also highlight the need for work-family policies that can help improve employee attitudes and reduce WFC. Previous studies have found an association between WFC and job satisfaction (Howard et al., 2004) and burnout (Hall et al., 2010; Martinussen et al., 2007) among front-line officers. Additionally, work-family conflict was among the strongest predictors of exhaustion, disengagement, and turnover intentions among police chiefs. Collectively, these findings show that the stress and demands of policing create family conflict among officers throughout the ranks. As a result, police chiefs should examine how policies and stress management programs can benefit both their subordinates and their families.

In a recent national survey of employers, Matos and Galinsky (2015) found that many organizations had one or more work-family policies, including taking time off for important family and personal needs without pay loss (82%); child care resources and

referral (37%); dependent care assistance plans (61%); elder care resource and referral (43%); employee assistance programming (77%); and workshops on resolving work-family problems (21%). In regards to the effectiveness of work-family policies, a recent meta-analysis found that the availability of work-family policies had a modest effect on job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013). Interestingly, Butts and colleagues found similar effects on work-related attitudes when the use of work-family policies was low. Moreover, simply *having* policies that are supportive of employees and their families can impact work attitudes, even if employees do not take advantage of them.

While the above-mentioned policies may not be perfectly conducive to how police departments operate, they demonstrate the reality that work-family policies are possible and can be effective in improving employee well-being in organizations of all sizes. Police chiefs could benefit from developing an in-house working group of officers from across the ranks to help assess the familial needs of their employees. From there, the needs assessment could help develop family-work policies that are specific to the department.

Developing a working group and establishing work-family policies are research-based strategies that can result in positive outcomes for chiefs and their organizations. First, the initiative can help chiefs develop ownership in their efforts, which can, in turn, increase engagement and job satisfaction. Second, developing a working group that includes officers from all ranks increases participatory decision-making. The inclusiveness of officers from all ranks in decision-making efforts and policy development has been linked to officer perceptions of support and approval from

supervisors, along with increased organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and less burnout (Beck & Wilson, 1997; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Johnson, 2012; 2015; McCarty & Skogan, 2012; Zhao et al., 1999).

Finally, establishing health and wellness policies can potentially improve relationships between frontline officers and administrators. Police chiefs possess the capacity to influence the attitudes, behaviors, and motivations of their subordinates (Krimmel & Lindenmuth, 2001; Nicholson-Crotty & O'Toole, 2004; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2008). According to signaling theory (Spence, 1973), "…people interpret an organization's observable actions as signals of less observable firm characteristics, thereby forming impressions about a firm's motivations (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013, p. 3). In other words, police chiefs' efforts to use and encourage the use of health and wellness programs may be symbolic of organizational support and concern (Grover & Crooker, 1995). As a result, police chiefs' can help emphasize the importance of health and wellness initiatives and family-work policies and validate officers' concerns by leading by example.

Other efforts to improve officer well-being would be to establish in-house health and wellness trainers/units and incorporating families into health and wellness trainings (Stevens, 2008). In recent years, peer support programs have gained attention in police departments across the nation. Walker, Milligan, and Berke (2005) describe peer support programs as opportunities for officers to talk confidentially with other sworn officers who are trained to support colleagues who are struggling with family or work-related issues. Research suggests that some officers are hesitant to using EAP programs, particularly when the therapist is a civilian with limited policing experience (Donnelly et al., 2015;

Goldstein, 2006). Nevertheless, despite the stigma surrounding help seeking in policing (Stevens, 2008), research has shown that the use of peer support programs can be an effective resource for officers post-critical incidents (Dowling, Moynihan, Genet, & Lewis, 2006). Peer-support programs can validate officers' concerns and help create a cultural shift where help-seeking is perceived as a sign of strength (Dowling, Genet, & Moynihan, 2005).

Police chiefs should embrace peer support programs by soliciting influential officers from across the ranks to participate in the program. The officers should be peer nominated from a diverse array of working groups. One cost-effective solution would be to send a few of the influential officers to a health and wellness 'train-the-trainer' conference. Moreover, police departments will have in-house trainers who could conduct regular trainings on burnout and suicide prevention, along with stress management techniques. Given their peer-nomination, the trainers may have more influence on others to continue using stress management techniques than an expensive expert who provides a one-time training.

The findings in the current study also demonstrate the need for police departments to be forward thinking about family participation in trainings. Families are the ultimate backup for law enforcement (Reese & Castellano, 2007), and there are several important implications for their inclusion in health and wellness trainings. First, Etzion (1987) noted that the development of burnout is an insidious process that is often difficult for individuals to self-diagnose or become self-aware. In other words, individuals suffering from burnout are often unaware they are experiencing the associated symptoms. Moreover, families can be an important support system if they are trained to understand

and identify common symptoms of burnout. Stevens (2008) argues that untrained family members may even be enablers of maladaptive coping skills (e.g., substance abuse, smoking, unhealthy eating/media consumption, etc.) by permitting stressed officers to continue to engage in the detrimental coping behaviors. Second, incorporating family members into trainings can increase awareness of resources in their area and allow them to gain familiarity with the departments EAP (if available). Third, family-inclusive trainings provide opportunities for family members to increase their social network and develop a support system comprised of family members of other officers. Finally, according to signaling theory (Spence, 1973), inviting families to health and wellness trainings can send a positive message to officers and their families that the department recognizes their sacrifices and cares about their well-being.

Collectively, police departments should consider adopting comprehensive health and wellness programs that benefit officers throughout the ranks. Making the health and wellness of officers a priority can also improve work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2002), burnout (Burke, 2016), and organizational commitment (Berry, Mirabito, & Baun, 2010). While implementing health and wellness programs in police departments can be easier said than done, previous reports of case studies validates the possibility (see Kuhns, Maguire, & Leach, 2015). Police chiefs should consider adopting peer support programs that foster in-house health and wellness trainers. Additionally, the findings demonstrate the importance of family-work support policies regularly incorporating families into health and wellness trainings.

Limitations

As one could only hope to conduct a flawless study, the current effort is not without limitations. First, the findings should be interpreted with caution given the sample was cross-sectional and comprised of police chiefs in a single state – Texas. Texas law requires all police chiefs to attend a TPCLS session every two years. Despite efforts to survey every police chief attending a TPCLS session, the current study used data that were collected over a one-year period, limiting the opportunity to run analyses using a census of Texas police chiefs. Moreover, the cross-sectional design limits the ability to draw causal conclusions. Second, the sample was limited exclusively to male police chiefs. Despite the initial sample of female police chiefs being representative of national estimates (3%; Reeves, 2015), the small sample size was omitted due to the lack of statistical power necessary to detect an effect.

Finally, the current study used global vs. specific measures of work-related attitudes. While not a limitation per say, using multidimensional measures of work-attitudes could provide a more nuanced understanding how personal and work-related factors influence attitudes related to certain facets of the job. For example, the current study used a validated measure of global job satisfaction, while other validated measures, such as the Job Descriptive index (Smith et al., 1969), are more specific and assess five dimensions of JS (e.g., satisfaction with work, supervisors, coworkers, pay, and promotion). The reason for the use of multidimensional job satisfaction measures is that personal and work-related factors may vary in their relationship to different job satisfaction dimensions. For example, the degree to which one is satisfied with the pay may be shaped by different factors than those influencing one's satisfaction with

coworkers (Smith et al., 1969). The current study also used a global measure of turnover intentions. Also known as voluntary turnover, the measure is rather broad and did not assess underlying motives for their intentions to leave. For example, the current study was unable to determine whether chiefs were contemplating leaving because they were close to retirement, were planning on leaving their current job for another department, or were interested in leaving the profession as a whole for a less stressful occupation. Future studies would benefit from assessing different motivations to leave and identify key predictors of the varying intentions.

Additionally, while organizational commitment was a significant predictor of all outcome variables, this finding should be interpreted with caution due to limitations of the instrument. The original OC instrument was comprised of six items, yet the factor and reliability analysis limited the instrument to two items with an alpha-level slightly below the acceptable threshold (Cronbach's $\alpha = .640$; Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Field, 2013). Thus, future studies should employ a multidimensional measure of OC to determine the unique effects of affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment on job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

Conclusions and Future Research Directions

Police chiefs are responsible for one of the most important municipal agencies in any community. Despite the demand placed on police chiefs, there is a surprising dearth of information on the various facets of their overall wellbeing. The President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing identified officer safety and wellness as a key pillar to improving police practices (President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015). While much of the stress and policing literature has focused primarily on frontline

officers (Abdollahi, 2002; Gershon et al., 2009), less is known about the factors related to job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions among police chiefs. This area of research is important considering previous studies have shown that the attitudes and decisions of law enforcement executives impact the attitudes and behaviors of their subordinates (Krimmel & Lindenmuth, 2001; Nicholson-Crotty & O'Toole, 2004; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Schafer, 2008). Moreover, police chiefs have the ability to shape the work environment to improve their own well-being, as well the health and wellness of their constituents. First and foremost, however, ensuring the health and wellness of officers can only happen when the issue is made relevant to decision-makers at the administrative level. Therefore, the impetus for the current study was to provide law enforcement executives and policing researchers with a better understanding of the personal and work-related factors associated with job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions among police chiefs.

The current study had two goals. The first goal was to establish baseline estimates of job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intention among police administrators. Chiefs from Texas police departments of all sizes and types were, on average, relatively satisfied with their jobs and reported low to moderate levels of exhaustion, disengagement, and intentions to leave their department. The second goal of the study was to identify and isolate the key personal, operational, and organizational characteristics associated with job satisfaction, burnout – both exhaustion and disengagement, and turnover intentions.

Across all models, operational and organizational factors accounted for much of the variance in the outcome variables, particularly work-family conflict and organizational commitment. The findings highlight the importance of families and how

conflict from work-demands increase exhaustion, disengagement, and turnover intentions. Implications surround the need for chiefs to strive for a healthy work-life balance, while establishing similar expectations from their subordinates. While previous studies have shown the effectiveness of health and wellness programs, along with work-family support policies (Butts et al., 2013; Chapman, 2003; Goetzel et al., 2014; Soler et al., 2010), little is known about their effectives and feasibility in police departments (Kuhns et al., 2015; Rachele et al., 2014).

Future studies should continue to explore (1) how to improve police culture by reducing the stigma surrounding mental health; (2) how to implement and maintain effective health and wellness programming; and (3) how to foster officer motivation and use of wellness programs and work-family policies. Additionally, future studies should employ a combination of mixed methods and longitudinal designs. Qualitative interviews with police chiefs and their families could provide a better understanding of the key issues and demands driving conflict. Moreover, job satisfaction and burnout are dynamic attitudes that can change overtime. Thus, longitudinal studies using advanced structural equation modeling could vastly improve our understanding of how personal and work-related factors influence job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover among police administrators.

As evidenced by Milwaukee Police Chief, Edward Flynn,[11] the demands and nature of being a police chief can be rewarding, yet overwhelming. Police departments can only be as effective as their leadership. Without policies that encourage a work-life balance or programs to improve employee well-being, it can be challenging for officers to

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11 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=T7MAO7McNKE

help others without helping themselves, first (Harrison & Westwood, 2009). In times of increased scrutiny, however, police chiefs can show support to their subordinates and their families by making officer safety and wellbeing a chief concern.

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Violanti, J. M., Fekedulegn, D., Hartley, T. A., Andrew, M. E., Charles, L., Tinney-Zara, C. A., & Violanti, J. M., Hartley, T. A., Gu, J. K., Fekedulegn, D., Andrew, M. E., & Burchfiel, C. M. (2013). Life expectancy in police officers: a comparison with the US general population. *International journal of emergency mental health*, *15*(4), 217.

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Woska, W. J. (2011). Police chief turnover: Meddling by elected officials [Unpublished manuscript]. Retrieved from: http://woskaassociates.com/downloads/Police_Chief_Turnover.pdf

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Yang, L. R., Yen, H. F., & Chiang, Y. F. (2012). A framework for assessing impacts of leadership competency on police project performance: Mediating role of job satisfaction and moderating role of project type. *Policing: An international Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *35*(3), 528-550.

Zhao, J., Thurman, Q., & He, N. (1999). Sources of job satisfaction among police officers: A test of demographic and work environment models. *Justice quarterly*, *16*(1), 153-173.

VITA

P A T R I C K Q. B R A D Y

Curriculum Vitae

EDUCATION

2017 Doctoral Candidate, Criminal Justice,
Sam Houston State University, Department of Criminal Justice & Criminology
Huntsville, TX
Dissertation: Chief concerns: Identifying personal and work-related correlates of job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions among police chiefs.
Chair: Dr. William R. King

2012 M.A., Criminal Justice
Boise State University, Department of Criminal Justice
Boise, ID
Thesis: Crimes against caring: Compassion fatigue, burnout, and self-care among professionals working with crimes against children.
Chair: Dr. Lisa Growette Bostaph

2010 B.A., Forensic Science/Investigations
Minor: Sociology – Program in Criminology & Deviance
Weber State University, Department of Criminal Justice
Ogden, UT

ACADEMIC POSITIONS

2015 – 2017 ***Doctoral Teaching Fellow***
Department of Criminal Justice & Criminology, Sam Houston State University

2013 - 2017 ***Graduate Research Assistant,*** **Dr. William King**
Department of Criminal Justice & Criminology, Sam Houston State University

2012 - 2013 ***Adjunct Instructor***
Department of Criminal Justice, Boise State University

REFEREED JOURNAL PUBLICATIONS

Brady, P. Q. (Forthcoming). Crimes against caring: Exploring the risk of secondary traumatic stress, burnout, and compassion satisfaction among child exploitation investigators. Accepted for publication at the *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*.

Franklin, C. A., **Brady, P. Q.**, Jurek, A. (forthcoming). Responding to gendered violence among college students: The impact of participant characteristics on direct bystander intervention behavior. *Journal of School Violence, 16(2)*.

Brady, P. Q., & Nobles, M. R. (forthcoming). The 'dark figure' of stalking: Examining law enforcement response. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence,* Online First 0886260515596979.

Brady, P. Q., Randa, R., & Reyns, B. W. (2015). From WWII to the World Wide Web: A research note on social changes, online "places," and a new online activity ratio for routine activity theory. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice, 32*(2), 129-147.

Growette Bostaph, L., **Brady, P. Q.**, & Giacomazzi, A. (2014). Criminal justice education: Are we missing one-third of the crime triangle?. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education, 25*(4), 468-485.

MANUSCRIPTS UNDER REVIEW

Franklin, C. A., Ashworth, L. M., & **Brady, P. Q.** Bystander intervention efforts following accusation of rape: The impact of relational distance and subject sex. Invited to revise and resubmit to the *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*.

Brady, P. Q., & Hayes, B. No rest for the wicked: Exploring the intersection of stalking and lethality. Under review at *Violence and Victims*.

MANUSCRIPTS IN PROGRESS

Brady, P. Q., Nobles. M. R., & Bouffard, L. A. (in progress). 'Clery-ing' things up about stalking: Exploring the generalizability of student samples in victimization research.

Brady, P.Q., & Fansher, A. (in progress). The forensics of fatigue: Examining the professional quality of life among forensic interviewers of abused children.

Brady, P.Q., & Lewis, R. (in progress). To serve *and* protect? Exploring the near repeat phenomenon among violations of protection orders.

TECHNICAL REPORTS

Brady, P. Q., & Bouffard, L. A. (2015). Majoring in stalking: Exploring stalking experiences between college students and the general public. *Crime Victims' Institute Research Brief*

Randa, R., Mitchell, M., & **Brady, P. Q.** (2015). Bullying and fear of victimization. *Crime Victims' Institute Research Brief*.

BOOK CHAPTERS AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS

Miller, K., **Brady, P.Q.**, Goodson, A., & Selover, B. (2016). Adolescent relationship abuse. In L. G. Bostaph & Swerin, D. Eds). *Crime victims and victimization*. New York, NY: Wolter Kluwer.

Brady, P. Q. & King, W. R. (2015). Technology and homicide investigations. In F. Brookman, E. Maguire, & M. Maguire (Eds). *The Handbook on Homicide*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Growette Bostaph, L. & **Brady, P. Q.** (Eds.). (2012). *Idaho Victim Assistance Academy: Team academy curriculum*. Boise, ID: Idaho Coalition Against Sexual & Domestic Violence.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Sam Houston State University, Department of Criminal Justice & Criminology, Huntsville, TX

Introduction to the American Criminal Justice System	Undergraduate (in person)
Criminology	Undergraduate (in person
Police Systems & Practices	Undergraduate (in person & online)

Boise State University, Department of Criminal Justice, Boise, ID

Research Methods	Undergraduate (online)
Introduction to Policing	Undergraduate (in person)

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Policing (secondary traumatic stress, burnout, and reducing case attrition in interpersonal violence cases, particularly among stalking and strangulation investigations), victimology, campus crime/bystander intervention programming, technology and crime, and child and adolescent victimization

NATIONAL/INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

2016 **Brady, P. Q.**, & King, W. R. (November, 2016). Stress and burnout among law enforcement executives: An empirical analysis. Paper to be presented at the American Society of Criminology conference in New Orleans, Louisiana.

2016 **Brady, P. Q.**, & King, W. R. (November, 2016). Chief concerns: Identifying personal and work- related correlates of job satisfaction among Texas law enforcement personnel. Paper to be presented at the Midwestern Association of Criminal Justice Conferences in Chicago, Illinois.

2016 **Brady, P. Q.**, Nobles, M. R., & Bouffard, L. A. (March, 2016). 'Clery-ing' things up about stalking: Exploring the generalizability of student samples in victimization research. Paper presented at the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences conferences in Denver, Colorado.

2015 **Brady, P. Q.**, & Hayes, B. (November, 2015). No rest for the wicked: Exploring the intersection of stalking and intimate partner homicide. Paper presented at the annual meetings of the American Society of Criminology, San Francisco, California.

2015 **Brady, P. Q.**, & Nobles, M. R. (March, 2015). The 'dark figure' of stalking: Examining justice system response. Paper presented at the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences conference in Orlando, Florida.

2014 **Brady, P. Q.**, & Randa, R. (November, 2014). From WWII to the World Wide Web: Applying and extending routine activities to cybercrime and place. Paper presented at the annual meetings of the American Society of Criminology, San Francisco, California.

2012 **Brady, P. Q.** (March, 2012). Crimes Against Caring? Examining the prevalence of compassion fatigue, burnout and self-care practices among professionals working with crimes against children. Presented at the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences conference in New York, NY.

2009 Buck, J. A., & **Brady, P. Q.** (October, 2009). The effects of fatigue and suggestibility on child witnesses. Presented at the Western Association of Criminal Justice conference, Las Vegas, NV.

ADDRESSES AND INVITED PRESENTATIONS

2016 Being a Bystander and Creating Change: Invited to present at the 2016 SHSU 'Walk a Mile in Her Shoes' Event

2015 Being a Bystander and Creating Change: Invited to present at the 2015 SHSU 'Walk a Mile in Her Shoes' Event

2012 Healthy breakups: Why we cannot rely on Taylor Swift or Jersey Shore! Banner session presented at the Office of Violence Against Women Services, Training, Education, and Policies to Reduce Domestic Violence, Dating Violence, Sexual Assault, and Stalking in Secondary Schools (STEP) Prevention Institute.

2012 Trauma from teens: Addressing compassion fatigue and burnout from working with at-risk adolescents. Banner session presented at the Embracing Adolescents Summit in Boise, ID.

ACTIVITIES AND SERVICE

University Service

2015 - 2017 Academic peer mentor at SHSU
2015 - 2016 Student representative for the Dean of the College of Criminal Justice's search committee
2013 - 2017 Student representative for the Faculty Search Committee at SHSU
2013 - 2017 Student representative for the Graduate Student Acceptance Committee at SHSU
2013 - 2017 Member of the Graduate Student Organization at SHSU

Manuscript Review

Journal of School Violence
Journal of Crime and Justice

Media Support/Service

2015 Article featured in the Huffington Post: Education – *"College students more likely to be stalked, but less likely to report it, study finds."*

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT/CERTIFICATIONS

Date	Certification	Hours Completed
2016	***Citizens Police Academy*** – Huntsville Police Department, Huntsville, TX; Professional development to gain exposure to various roles, responsibilities, and tactics used by officers in a medium-sized police department	40
2015	***Teaching Online: Strategies for Success*** – Professional certification to develop and instruct online courses	40
2013	***Green Dot, etc***. – Certified instructor to train and implement bystander intervention programming at colleges and high schools	40

COMPETITIVE AWARDS

2015 "Best Research" Award at the 2015 Graduate Research Exchange at SHSU
Project Title: *The 'Dark Figure' of Stalking: Examining Law Enforcement Response.*

2015 Criminal Justice Doctoral Student Research Fellowship,
College of Criminal Justice, Sam Houston State University ($6,000.00)
Project title: *No rest for the wicked: Exploring the intersection of stalking and intimate partner homicide.*

2014 Criminal Justice Doctoral Student Research Fellowship,
College of Criminal Justice, Sam Houston State University ($6,000.00)
Project title: *From WWII to the World Wide Web: Applying and extending*

Routine Activities to cybercrime.

2010 Department of Criminal Justice Outstanding Forensic Science Student Award, 2010, Weber State University

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS:

2016 – Present	International Association of Chiefs of Police – Student Member
2016 – Present	Midwestern Criminal Justice Association – Student Member
2015 – Present	Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences – Student Member of the Victimology Section
2013 – Present	American Society of Criminology – Student Member of the Policing and Victimology Section
2010 – Present	Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences – Student Member
2009 – 2010	American Psychology and Law Society, Division 41 of the American Psychological Association – Student Member

RELEVANT PREVIOUS EMPLOYMENT

Doctoral Research Assistant
Dr. William King, Sam Houston State University, 2014 – Present.
Dr. Matt Nobles, Sam Houston State University, 2014 – 2015.

Research Analyst/Violence Prevention Specialist, Idaho Coalition Against Sexual & Domestic Violence, Boise ID (January, 2011 – January, 2014).

Graduate Research Assistant, Dr. Lisa Growette-Bostaph & Dr. Andrew Giacomazzi – Department of Criminal Justice, Boise State University, Boise, ID (January, 2011 – May, 2012).

Youth Specialist, Cherry Gulch: A Therapeutic Boarding School for Boys, Emmett, ID. (July, 2010 – November, 2011).

Research Assistant, Dr. Julie Buck, Department of Criminal Justice, Weber State University, Ogden, UT (May, 2009 – May, 2010).

Youth Specialist, Youth Health Associates: A Residential Treatment Center for Juvenile Sex Offenders, Clearfield, UT (August, 2008 – May, 201